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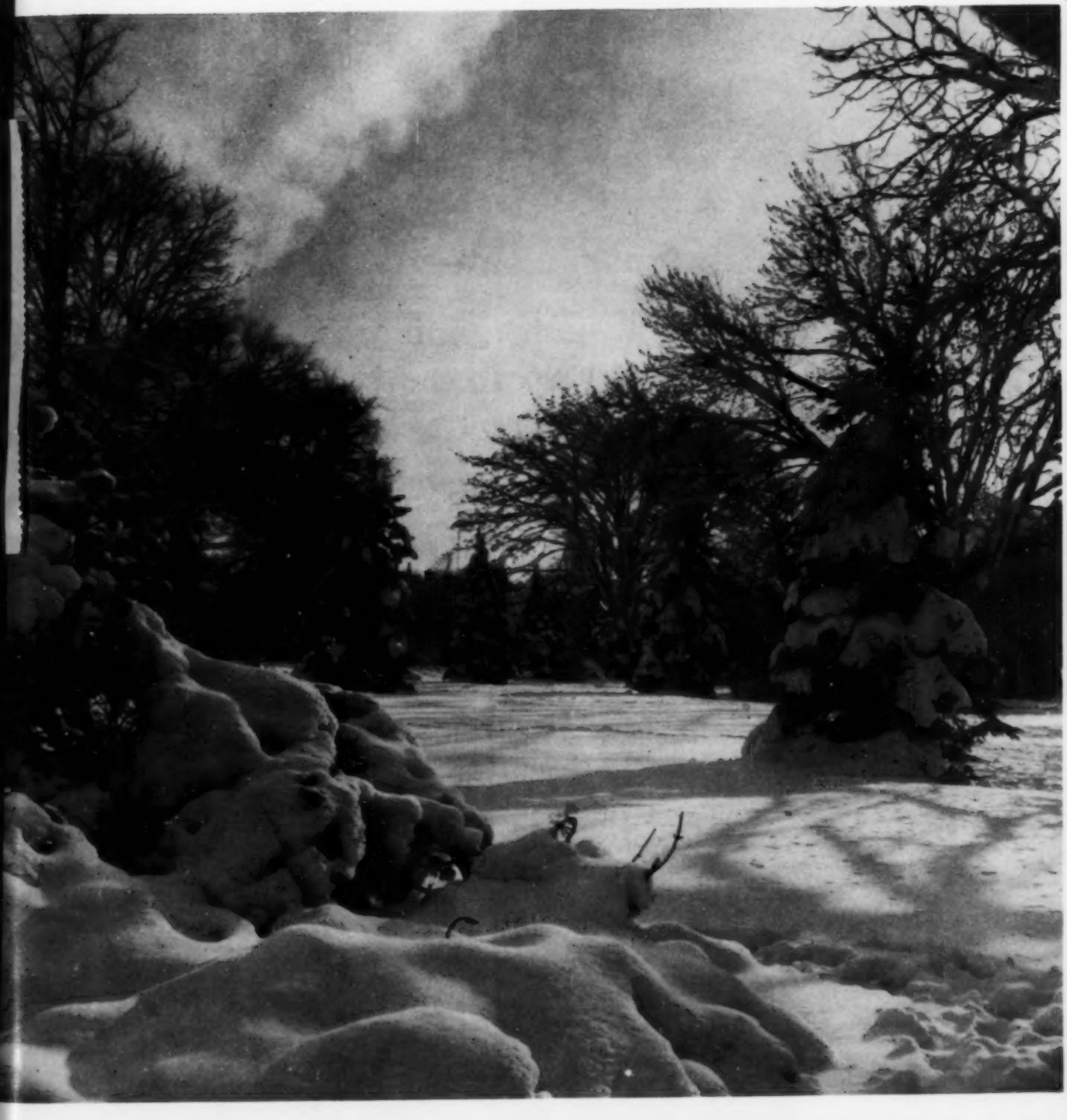

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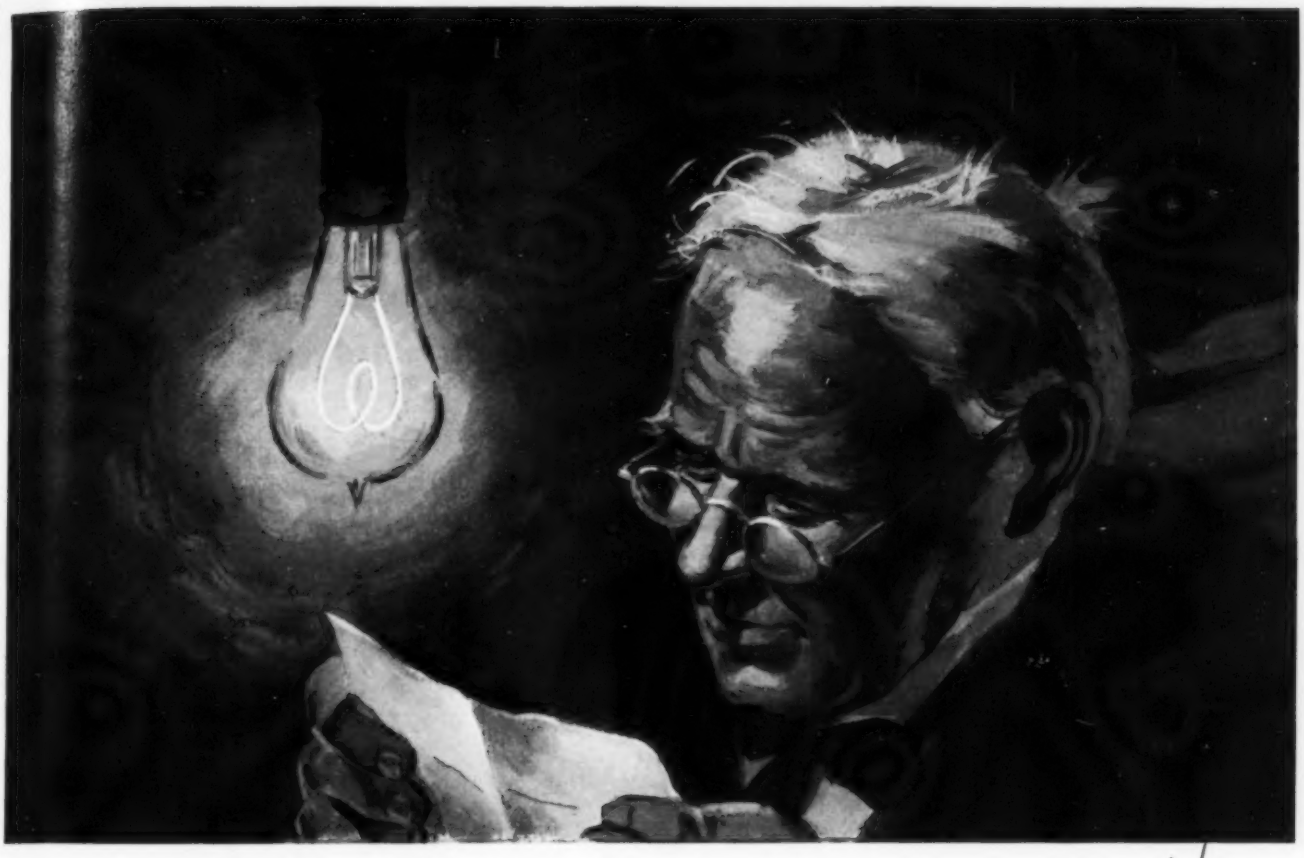
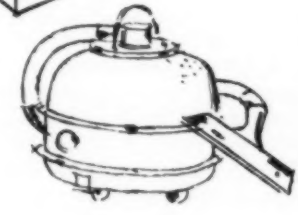
As one of its major activities in carrying out its purpose, the Society publishes a monthly magazine, the Canadian Geographical Journal, which is devoted to every phase of geography — historical, physical and economic — of Canada, of the British Commonwealth and of the other parts of the world. It is the intention to publish articles in this magazine that will be popular in character, easily read, well illustrated, and informative.

The Canadian Geographical Journal will be sent to each member of the Society in good standing. Membership in the Society is open to any one interested in geographical matters. The annual fee for membership is five dollars (Canadian currency).

The Society has no political or other sectional associations, and is responsible only to its members. All money received is used in producing the Canadian Geographical Journal and in carrying on such other activities for the advancement of geographical knowledge as funds of the Society may permit.





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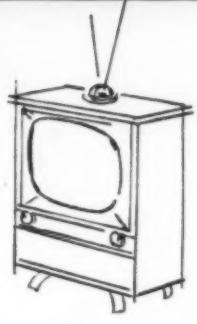

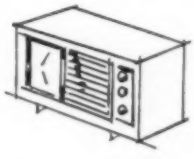

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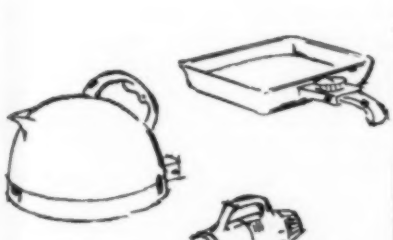

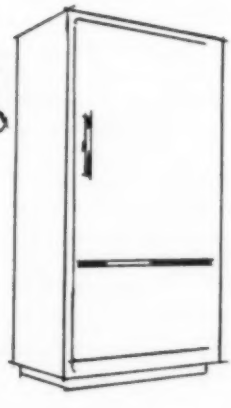

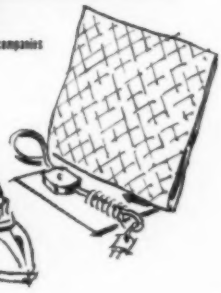

The late Dr. Charles Camsell, C.M.G., LL.D., F.R.S.C., F.R.G.S., F.G.S.A., at his desk in 1944 when he was Deputy Minister of Mines and Resources.

OBITUARY

DR. CHARLES CAMSELL

It is with profoundest regret that we have to record the death of our honorary president, Dr. Charles Camsell, C.M.G., LL.D., which occurred at his home in Ottawa on 19 December 1958.

Dr. Camsell was the first president of The Royal Canadian Geographical Society, and held that office from the foundation of the Society in 1929 till he resigned in 1941. It was in his own office at the National Museum that he and his colleagues laid the foundations of our Society and it was his guiding hand that launched it into the world of progressive science. He was a frequent contributor to the *Canadian Geographical Journal;* he often lectured to the Society and took a most unfailing and helpful interest in all the Society's proceedings.

He was widely recognized as one of the greatest geologists of our time and it is to him that Canada first owed a realization of her vast mineral potential in the northern regions. He was, as he describes himself in the title of his own reminiscences, "a son of the north", born at Fort Liard in the Northwest Territories, son of the Chief Factor of the Hudson's Bay Company. He was educated at Manitoba University and after much field experience took post-graduate courses at Queen's University, Harvard University and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. His earlier years were marked with great hardship and danger in exploring the unknown area between the basin of the Mackenzie River and the Pacific coast. He made a canoe trip of 700 miles to explore the possibilities of finding gold in the Great Slave Lake region. Later he continued his investigations and hardships in company with his friend and co-worker, Dr. J. Mackintosh Bell. In 1901 he turned his attention to the geology of the Moose River Basin and Great Slave Lake; he was also appointed geologist to the Canadian Northern Railway Company.

With this unrivalled and dearly earned experience of the north he returned to civilization and entered the service of the Geological Survey at Ottawa where his valuable knowledge was utilized by an assignment to map the mining areas of British Columbia and to learn what mineral deposits were available. In 1914 he was sent northwards to lead survey parties for the exploration of the land between Great Slave Lake and Athabasca. His wide knowledge and varied work won him many honours and the membership of many scientific societies including the Royal Geographical Society of London (1915), the Geographical Society of America (1916). He was chosen as Canadian representative at the Empire Mining and Metallurgical Congress held in South Africa in 1930. He was a member of the National Research Council from 1921 to 1936 and was appointed Deputy Minister of Mines and Resources and Commissioner of the Northwest Territories in 1935, an office he held till his retirement in 1946. In 1935 his work was signalized by King George V who made him a Companion of the Order of St. Michael and St. George, an honour he valued for his profession as well as for himself.

We tender our deepest sympathy to his widow Mrs. Charles Camsell, his daughters Mrs. Max Klotz and Mrs. Graham Mayburry, and his son Mr. Charles Camsell of Haileybury.

CANADIAN GEOGRAPHICAL JOURNAL

Published monthly by

THE ROYAL CANADIAN GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY

Ottawa, Ontario

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This magazine is dedicated to the presentation in authentic and popular form, with extensive illustrations, of the broad pattern of Canadian life and its industrial, physical, and cultural foundations.

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The British standard of spelling is adopted substantially as used by the Government of Canada and taught in most Canadian schools, the precise authority being the Concise Oxford Dictionary, fourth edition, 1951.

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Photograph by G. M. Dallyn

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An artist's rendering of the geodesic dome that will form the central feature of two Canadian trade fairs to be held in Kingston, Jamaica, and Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, from 16 to 25 January and from 20 February to 1 March respectively. The dome will house government information and trade promotion offices and display stands.

Canada's Trade with The West Indies

by O. MARY HILL

MARITIMERS in the early nineteenth century were accustomed to seeing, in shipyards scattered along the coast, small schooners taking shape. Most of these eventually sailed south to the islands of sugar and spices, the West Indies. To Canadians of those days the West Indian trade was vital and familiar. The ships carried down fish, salted and dried on flakes in the Atlantic sun; deals, staves and sawn lumber from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; some wheat and flour from Upper Canada; and a few other goods. Homeward bound, they brought chiefly sugar, molasses and rum — "the ordinary beverage of the time".

For over two centuries the West Indies and Canada have maintained these close trading ties. In some ways, the trade has changed little. Fish, lumber and flour continue to be our leading exports to the West Indies. But up from the holds of ships docking in Jamaica, Trinidad and Barbados, as well as the smaller islands, come other products too — newsprint, tobacco, animal feeds, milk powder, onions, mining machinery, and a variety of manufactured goods. The returning ships still bring us sugar — over half a million tons a year — plus molasses and rum. But they carry also bauxite and alumina, crude oil for refining into gasoline, coffee and cocoa. On our pantry shelves stand many other things that the West Indies supply — nutmeg and mace, ginger, lime-juice, the arrowroot starch that goes into arrowroot biscuits, and

that useful little bottle of angostura bitters.

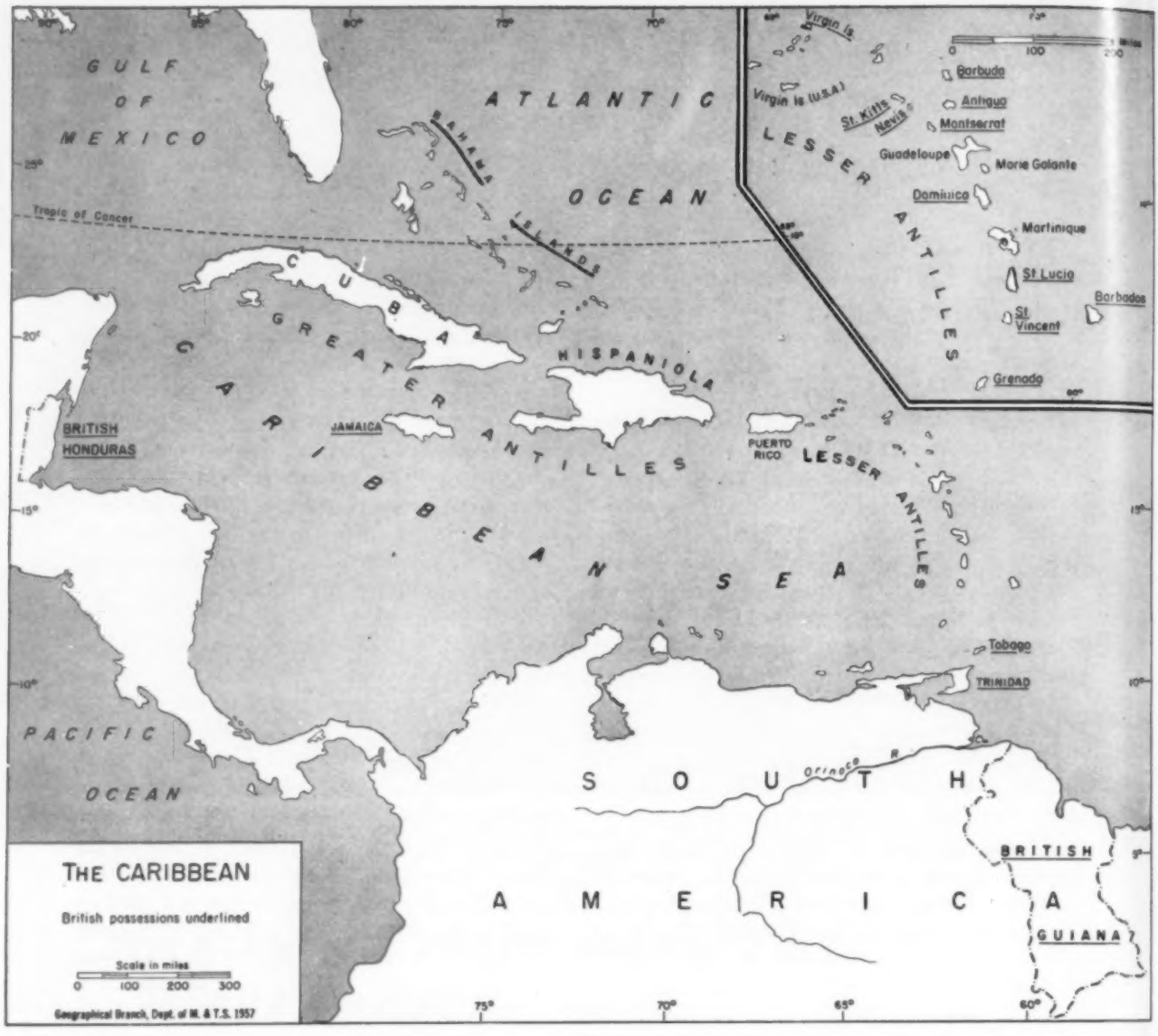
Over the years, much has been done to encourage this trade. Back in 1866, a Canadian trade mission was dispatched to the West Indies and several have since followed in its steps. In 1892 Canada appointed five commercial agents in the islands; currently our Trade Commissioner Service has busy offices in Kingston, Jamaica, and Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, covering the area.

The inauguration of the West Indies Federation last January focused attention again on this Commonwealth neighbour. As one result, Jamaica and Trinidad will shortly be the scene of Canadian trade fairs. The Jamaica fair will open this month and will run for two weeks; the exhibits will then be packed up and moved to Trinidad for a second fair, 20 February to 1 March. About 125 Canadian firms will display products and the Canadian Chamber of Commerce will send down a large party of business men to attend the fairs and make business contacts. There will be a Canadian fashion show, musical entertainment, and other special events to make each fair a star attraction.

Revolution, foreign wars, depression and political change have all affected the course of our West Indies trade during its long history. The American Revolution brought to Canadians business diverted from the rebelling colonies. From 1783 up to the time of the American Civil War, the trade boomed. This was the heyday of the small Maritime-built sailing vessels, easily manoeuvred in narrow West Indian waters. Halifax became the centre of this trade and many of its citizens made modest fortunes out of it. In just three years, 1819 to 1822, goods worth £621,000 — a big sum in those days — passed through the port of Halifax bound for the West Indies. The father of Samuel Cunard, founder of the transatlantic steamship service, gave up carpentry to buy a water-front property and get into this business, and the main impetus to the founding of the Bank of Nova Scotia in 1832 was the need for financing this trade.

Many other parts of Canada today sell to and buy from the West Indies, but for the Atlantic Provinces this trade retains a special importance and interest. As one example, the dried fish once shipped down to feed the slaves on the sugar estates still remains a staple of the West Indian diet. (At least two Maritime firms have been selling salt fish there continuously since the late 1700s.) As late as the 1870s "rick-a-dicks", long trucks with shafts at one end and wheels in the centre and used almost exclusively for the trucking of flour in

Canadian lumber being unloaded from lighters at Bridgetown, Barbados. A deep-water harbour is being constructed at Bridgetown which should facilitate the handling of ocean cargoes.



barrels, fish, and other products, were a common sight on Halifax streets. So too were the box carts filled with oranges or coconuts, conveyed in bulk in ships' holds, on their way to the principal grocery stores.

Two events that took place about the middle of the nineteenth century affected the size and the direction of Canada-West Indies trade. One was the coming of steam and the gradual disappearance of the wooden ships and the busy Atlantic coast shipyards. The other was Confederation in 1867 — a political event that turned Canadian attention in other directions. The trade did go on, but between 1867 and 1907 it grew very slowly and in some years declined. Less prosperity in the islands themselves also had an effect. In 1880 our sales to the West Indies brought in $1.9 million and twenty years later, in 1900, only $1.7 million. For the same years, our purchases from the West Indies fell from $1.2 million to only $800,000.

The new century saw trade prospects brighten. In 1900, Canada granted a duty preference on sugar coming from the West Indies, just three years before the planters there began to lose much of the United States market. Impressed with the mutual trade opportunities, Canada initiated a trade conference with the West Indies. It was held in Ottawa in 1912 and out of it came a trade agreement providing for tariff preferences on many of the goods exchanged and for improved shipping and communications.

Ever since, trade agreements have played a part in our West Indian commerce. By 1920, when a new and broader agreement was negotiated, our sales had risen to $10.9 million and our purchases of West Indian goods to $12.1 million. In 1926 came a third and more detailed trade agreement. This one was intended to last for twelve years only but it remains in force today. The establishment of the West Indies Federation in 1958 and the intention to arrange a customs union among its members — Jamaica, Barbados, the Leeward and Windward Islands, Trinidad and Tobago — mean that soon this agreement will have to be replaced by a new one.

Under the 1926 agreement, nearly all Canadian goods going into the West Indies were granted a duty preference. The effect was soon felt. Not only did sales go up — they reached $13.2 million in 1930 or 1.5 per cent of our export trade — but they also broadened out. We began to sell more processed foodstuffs and manufactured goods as well as the old mainstays. Nowadays, and in the face of difficulties to be discussed later, our exports to the West Indies include a larger percentage of manufactures and processed food products than do our exports to any other foreign market. Such items as processed foods and meat figure largely because in their concentration on sugar the islands do not produce enough food for their own needs.

For well over half a century, beginning about 1890, Canada has, in one way or another, helped to subsidize shipping services to the West Indies. The 1926 agreement led to the advent of the five *Lady* boats that went on the run in 1929, as well as five cargo ships. Year by year the *Lady Rodney*, the *Lady Nelson* and their sisters carried Canadians south for a Caribbean holiday and transported goods to and fro. They and the cargo boats provided the refrigerated space needed for shipping perishables. Throughout the 1930s they did yeoman service until enemy action during the war and obsolescence later forced their disappearance.

The 1926 agreement naturally helped West Indian producers as well as Canadian exporters. They received duty preferences on many things they wanted to sell us, particularly the all-important sugar, but also on bananas, cocoa beans, rum, coffee, spices, and so on. In fact, nearly all the products that could be marketed here gained some advantages. By 1930 we were buying $14.3 million worth of goods from the West Indies. Until 1939, as one example of the trade, over half the bananas for Canadian consumption came from Jamaica. Then the war disrupted shipping and disease and hurricanes struck the banana plantations. We turned to Central America and we still buy most of our bananas there.

The depression brought an unavoidable drop

Sugar is the basic industry of the island federation. Here sugar-cane is being loaded into an ox cart in Jamaica.

Workers of the Richmond Vale Arrowroot Factory on the Leeward Land Settlement Estate in St. Vincent. A small island in the Windward group, St. Vincent produces most of the world's supply of arrowroot.

British official photograph. Crown copyright

in our West Indian trade and it was just picking up again when the war broke out. War loosened the close trading ties between the islands and the mother country, as submarines menaced shipping. Canada at once undertook to keep the West Indies supplied with essentials. Wartime needs and a post-war purchasing spree there pushed our sales up steadily until in 1947 they reached almost five times the 1930 figure. We have stepped up our West Indian purchases also; the peak year for them was 1957. The table gives the pertinent figures.

Canada's Trade with the West Indies

Year	Exports to the West Indies Can.$	Imports from the West Indies Can.$
1930	13.2 million	14.3 million
1935	7.8 "	12.0 "
1939	11.7 "	12.5 "
1944	40.4 "	23.0 "
1947	61.2 "	20.0 "
1950	21.2 "	44.7 "
1951	29.0 "	47.5 "
1954	31.3 "	31.5 "
1957	31.0 "	58.4 "

(In looking at the post-war figures, one must remember that a dollar buys much less than it did in the 1930s. Even so, the trade has grown remarkably in volume as well as in value.)

To keep the picture in perspective, we need to bear in mind that only about one per cent of our total exports in 1957 went to the West Indies, compared with nearly 60 per cent to the United States and about 15 per cent to Britain. But to some Canadian producers it is a market that means much — to the Atlantic coast fish processors, to the flour millers, to the tobacco growers of central Canada, and to the lumber and salmon exporters of British Columbia. Our West Indian neighbours also buy a wide variety of manufactured goods: some of these we might find hard to sell in more sophisticated markets. The Federation today is our fourth largest Commonwealth customer.

Let us look at things in reverse — from the West Indian point of view. How do we rank as a buyer of West Indian products ? Actually, we take about 13 per cent of their exports, (19 per cent pre-war), second only to Britain, which takes a good 44 per cent. Our principal purchase continues to be sugar, as it was in the days of the wind-jammers; we buy 30 per cent of the crop. Molasses and rum too still come our way — the molasses by tanker today, instead of in the traditional barrels. But new imports have also appeared. One is bauxite, mined in Jamaica, converted into alumina there, and brought north to the Aluminum Company of Canada's plants — $23.3 million worth in 1957. Another is crude oil from Trinidad; we paid $3.5 million for it in 1957.

The birth of the West Indies Federation just a year ago led Canadians to wonder whether this long-awaited development would stimulate our sales to the islands. Are our exports likely to top the $31 million mark of 1957 ? They cannot increase much as long as the main obstacle, import restrictions, remains. Eleven years ago, in August 1947, the sterling area suddenly found itself running short of dollars. Like a prudent householder, it had to cut its spending to fit its budget. That meant stripping purchases from dollar countries like Canada down to essentials — and Canadian exporters soon suffered, as the table above shows. The year

Loading sugar for overseas shipment at Bridgetown, Barbados. Sugar is the chief industry of Barbados, accounting for 72 per cent of the island's total exports in 1957.

Barbados Government

Bauxite and alumina are among the principal commodities that Jamaica exports to Canada. Here the bauxite is transferred by conveyor to the stockpile.

Gerry Munson, Jamaica

1950 proved to be the low point; since then, the restrictions have been eased in several ways. Today various products that figure largely in our trade — fish (except fresh or frozen), various foodstuffs, newsprint, tobacco, apples, and a few others — can enter the West Indies freely. Special arrangements are made for others, such as manufactured goods in token quantities and those needed for the tourist industry. The restrictions will be relaxed further as the dollar problem eases. When they disappear, Canadian exporters will face only the normal competition and many factors will be in their favour.

Some of these factors are obvious to everyone. One is the common language and another the natural bond between two Commonwealth countries. We are also near neighbours, geographically speaking, yet we are not economic rivals. The West Indies grow many things that we need to buy and we can offer her many products that she lacks. The preferential tariff works to our mutual advantage.

Another trade asset is the goodwill that each feels towards the other. This becomes stronger as we become better acquainted — as Canadian tourists flock south to enjoy the West Indian scenery and sunshine and West Indians travel north to our schools and colleges.

The investment of Canadian money and of commercial and technical skills in the islands also draws us closer together. Today three of Canada's chartered banks have a total of thirty-nine branches in the Federation. Canadian capital has gone into several projects for mining and refining minerals, into oil in Trinidad, public utilities in Jamaica, and bauxite development also in Jamaica. Lately Canadians have been investing in the hotel industry. West Indians hope that more Canadians will become interested in providing accommodation of all kinds for visitors to the islands and also in putting up plants to process locally grown foods or to make goods for sale in the islands.

Federation should hasten another development that benefits trade—the slow but steady rise of West Indian living standards. Progress varies from island to island and comparisons with Canadian standards are misleading. In some of the smaller islands, for example, a worker may earn less than a dollar a day. The majority of buyers there look for low prices before quality: they have to. Even an additional cent or two on the price matters, and Canadian exporters of consumer goods must bear this in mind.

Canadian traders with this area have other problems above and beyond the import restrictions. One of them, shipping space, especially for carrying perishables that need refrigeration, is being solved as the vacuum left by the disappearance of Canadian National Steamships is filling up. Exporters have a choice of three lines with freight service from St. Lawrence and east coast ports, and three others have sailings from the west coast through the Panama Canal and make regular calls at ports in Trinidad, Jamaica and Barbados. Trans-Canada Air Lines, which began regular flights to Jamaica and Trinidad in 1948, also offers air cargo and air express service.

For the West Indians themselves, inter-island shipping services have long been inadequate. Just as the Canada of 1867 needed a transcontinental railroad to bind the scattered provinces together, the West Indies Federation needs ships to do the same job. A major part of the $10 million in aid funds that Canada is giving the West Indies over the next five years is being spent on two inter-island vessels.

The keenest competition that our traders encounter in the West Indies comes from the United Kingdom and the United States. Britain holds the lion's share of the West Indian market: she provided 36 per cent of its imports in 1956, compared with 37 per cent in 1935-9 and 40 per cent in 1949. These figures, of course, reflect not only the British comeback after the war but also the fact that the import restrictions have reduced competition.

Our second trade rival is the United States. Though American exporters do not have the advantage of the preferential tariff, they are closer to the market, can often deliver goods more speedily, and sometimes can offer a wider range of goods at lower prices. Recently American millers have cut seriously into our sales with their subsidized flour. Altogether, about 17 per cent of the West Indies imports came from the United States in 1956 but only 11 per

cent from Canada. In 1949 Canada's share was 15 per cent and the United States 16 per cent.

It is encouraging that West Indians themselves understand and sympathize with our desire to sell more to them. Our trade with Jamaica is heavily in Jamaica's favour and last January the island sent a trade mission to Canada to find out what additional products it could buy from us!

Even more hopeful for the future is the feeling of mutual dependence between the ninety-one-year-old Dominion of Canada and the one-year-old West Indies Federation. The Canadian announcement of a $10 million grant-in-aid over the next five years, made while the Commonwealth Trade and Economic Conference was in session in Montreal, has strengthened this feeling. The report on the conference foreshadowed other developments within the next few years. It said: "The Canadian Delegation had discussions with the United Kingdom and West Indian representatives with a view to exploring the possibilities of closer and freer trading relationships between Canada and The West Indies. As a result, it has been agreed that joint consideration should be given to all measures designed to improve and strengthen existing trade ties and to ensure the closest possible trading relationships between The West Indies and Canada."

This official statement seems to forecast that, if Canadian exporters can provide what the West Indies want to buy and if they can broaden the range of products to sell to us, trade should grow as the Federation matures.

Loading an inter-island schooner at Port-of-Spain, Trinidad. Petroleum products and sugar are the leading exports of this island, the second largest in the Federation.

Pointe de l'Echouerie; French names are usual in the Magdalens where the majority of the inhabitants are of Quebec-French and Acadian descent. Municipally the islands are included in Gaspé County, Quebec.

Canada's Shangri-la —The Magdalen Islands

by L. R. LINTON

AN OLD FISHERMAN sitting on the wharf at Grindstone Island was asked "What are the Magdalen Islands noted for?" At first he looked puzzled, then a grin lit up the lines of his leathery face. He spoke in soft broken English, "A veree happee people."

He spoke the truth, for the Magdalen Islanders do radiate such a feeling of goodwill and contentment as is seldom found today. So strong is their attachment for this sea-drenched land, and so deep go their roots into its rocky soil, that the islands are as much a part of them as their living and breathing. Winter's backbone of ice, which cuts them off from the mainland nearly half of every year and puts them in a world apart, only serves to strengthen this feeling of unity. Here they would rather be than anywhere else in the world. Here is their "Shangri-la".

Certainly in the summer the Magdalens could be anyone's "Shangri-la" — a place where the birds are as numerous as blades of grass; where blue lagoons and quiet bays frill and scallop the golden beaches; where wild flowers cover the fields in a riot of colour; and where men sit in the sun by the boats fixing gear and talking about the old days. Time, by the hour, does not seem to exist as one day melts into the next. Crime is practically unknown.

As though dropped in the middle of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the Magdalens lie about fifty-four miles from the north-east tip of Prince Edward Island. They extend for about sixty miles, and at places are less than a mile wide. The archipelago is composed of sixteen islands of which the largest are Grindstone and Amherst. Several of the islands are joined together by sand bars, which are submerged at high tide, but used as roads when the tide is low.

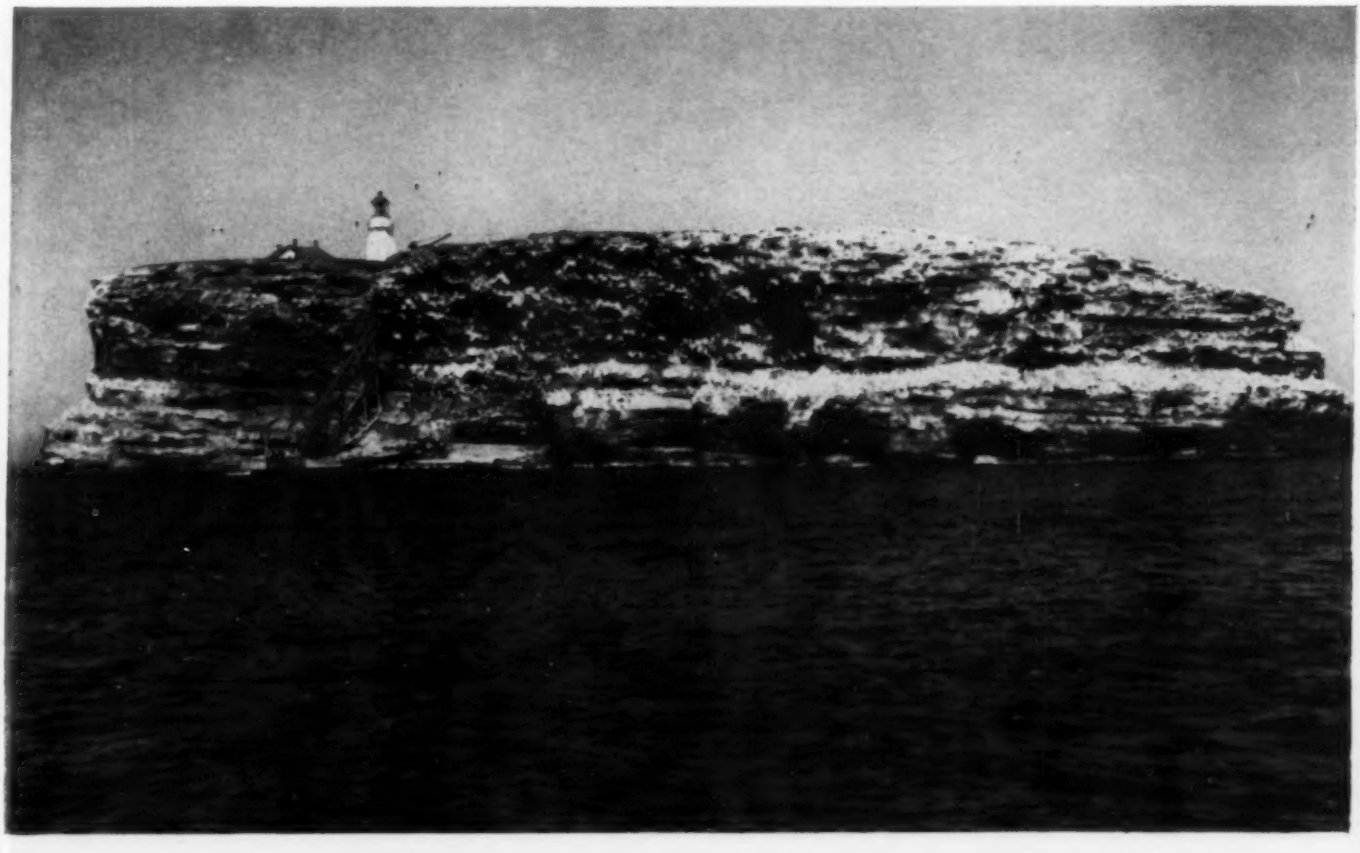
Jacques Cartier reached the Magdalens on 25 June 1534. He hove to beside the islands and spent several days exploring. He liked what he saw, and wrote to the King of France describing one of the islands, which he named Brion, as a "veritable paradise . . . thick groves of splendid

trees, alternated with beautiful glades and meadowland, while the entire length of the island, about six miles, was carpeted with bright flowers, blossoming peas, and the soft colours of the wild rose." In the journal that he kept he recorded that there was an abundance of wood and water, and also game (bears and foxes). To their surprise they came upon huge beasts basking upon the shore "with two great teeth in their mouths like elephants." One of these (walrus) was chased by the sailors but cast itself into the sea and disappeared.

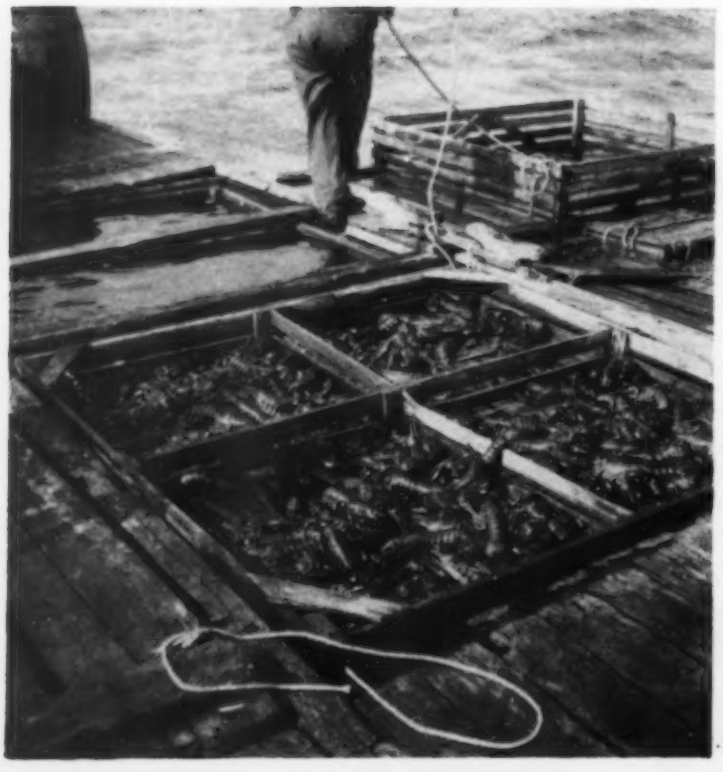
Most of the population is French, descended from Acadians who took refuge on the Magdalens after the expulsion and who had nothing but their bare hands and a grim determination to dig their roots once again in deep and make these islands their home forever. Fortunately at that time herds of walrus used to descend periodically on the Magdalens. The Acadians slaughtered them for their blubber and their tusks, and a thriving trade in ivory was developed. Such a great number were killed year after year that eventually they came no more to the islands.

There are English-speaking settlements on Entry Island, at Grindstone Island and at Old Harry Head on Coffin Island. The latter was named after a British sailor. In the early 1800s a British man-of-war hove to off the islands. The captain knew it was the season for blueberries and he was hungry for a blueberry tart, so some of the sailors were sent ashore to gather berries. One man, named Clarke, became so engrossed in the berry-picking that his ship sailed without him. Evidently he was not greatly perturbed, because the story goes that

Sighted by Jacques Cartier in 1534, Bird Rocks received the name Isles de Margaulx after the gannets which nested in great numbers along the rocky ledges.



Some of the islands have a double nomenclature, such as this one known as Amherst Island or Ile Havre Aubert.



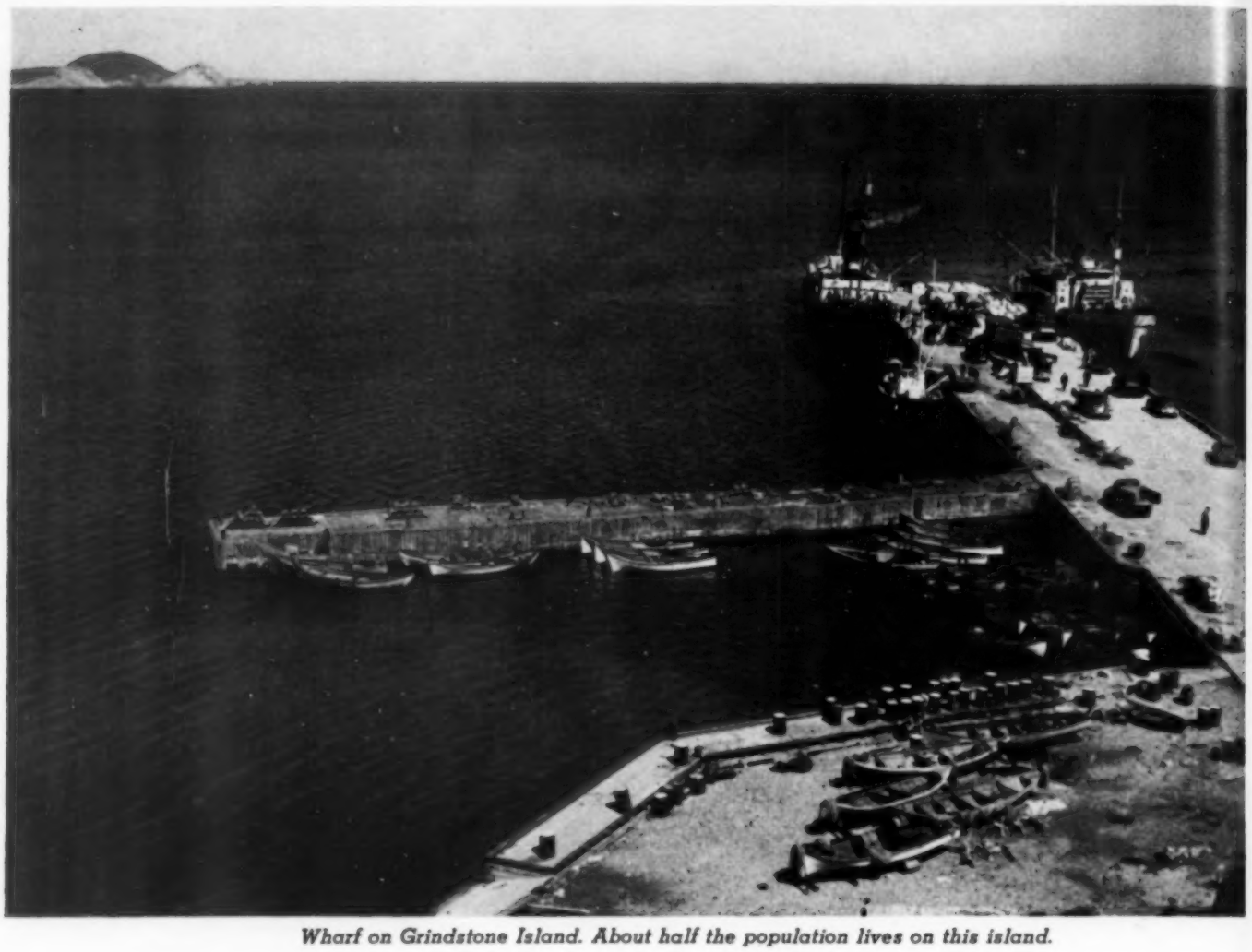
he soon found himself a wife and began the settlement on Old Harry Head and there his descendants are still to be found.

Today some 11,000 people live in a world not only geographically apart, but also philosophically. There are no towns — just scattered communities with here and there a group of stores and a fish plant. For some years now they have had a weekly newspaper and a moving picture theatre, but there are not many cars travelling the island roads and the pace of living is geared to the horse and buggy era. Many of the in-

The lobster fishery ranks first as a source of livelihood in the Magdalens. Here captured lobsters are kept alive in floating cages at Point-de-l'Est.

Right:—Sabbatical peace reigns over the fishing fleet. A Sunday scene at Old Harry Head showing the fishing boats grounded on a dry-dock made of small tree trunks.

Fisheries are the main resource of the islands, and here is a busy flotilla on Amherst Island.



Wharf on Grindstone Island. About half the population lives on this island.

habitants have yet to see a skyscraper or hear the whistle of a train.

The Madelinots are honest and temperate, and do not place importance on the accumulation of material possessions. Their homes may not have many modern conveniences, but their children are rosy-cheeked and well adjusted. Family relationships are strong and fundamental, and the family is a close-knit working unit. When lobster and fish prices are good, the islands prosper; but in the past there have been hard times, and the people have been very poor. Good times or bad, so deep is their love for their island homeland that they would rather starve than be exiled from it. Through the years, of the few who have left for the outside world to seek fame and fortune most have returned, glad to be home again on the Magdalens.

The pattern of the seasons is woven in much the same design, year in and year out. It is March when the Madelinots emerge from their winter hibernation, shake themselves and begin their busy schedule, which lasts from dawn to dusk for the next few months. Seal killing is first, followed by lobster fishing in June and July, then there is cod, herring and flounder fishing until October. In between times the men dig clams, jig mackerel, go "black-ducking" and farm. The fishing boats require constant attention and any spare odd moments will be spent repairing, caulking and painting them.

Generally speaking, the families are large. All members of workable age help out in the busy seasons, father and son often working side by side. This cements strong family relationships.

Traditionally, on the islands October is the month of weddings. Then the busy season is on the wane and time can be taken for enjoyment. Weddings are very important occasions in the social life of the communities. Intensive pre-

parations go on for weeks for a big celebration that will probably last several days.

From the middle of December to the middle of May, the Magdalens are walled off from the rest of the world by ice. Though in the time of Cartier the islands were thickly forested, now hardly a tree remains. Along with all the provisions to last the winter, firewood and coal also have to be brought from the mainland. This detailed operation, so important to winter comfort, is usually completed by the end of November.

There was once a time when the Magdalens competed with Sable Island as the "graveyard of the Atlantic", but now because of lighthouses and radio beacons comparatively few ships are wrecked off their shores. It is claimed though that the Magdalens have the loneliest lighthouse on the Atlantic coast. Whether or not that is true, it certainly has one with a most tragic history. Some even go so far as to say that the lighthouse must be cursed because its keepers have had so much bad luck since it began operating in 1870. Two of them lost their lives while seal fishing on ice floes which carried them away. On two different occasions death and destruction were caused when the cannon, which was formerly used as a fog signal, exploded. Another time an entire family was poisoned. In spite of the many misfortunes, the light kept burning to warn ships off the jagged rocks of the Magdalens.

The Madelinot fisherman is a man of the wind — the wind that always blows on the islands, lashing the bleached timbers of wrecked ships, slicing the caps off the sand dunes, buffeting the red cliffs and the buildings beyond. With his face to the wind, the Madelinot studies and measures the weather, predicts if the fishing boats will come home weighted with cod, and foretells the spring day the gannets will come.

Of the birds on the Magdalens Cartier wrote in his journal when he sighted Bird Rocks, "Steep as a wall it is impossible to climb to the top. These islands are as completely covered with birds that nest there as a field is covered with grass." Over four hundred years have passed since those words were written and still the birds come to the Magdalens. First the gannets in May, huge birds with a six-foot wing spread, rending the air with their noisy quarrels in mating season; then come the puffins, guillemots, murres, kittiwakes and razor-billed auks.

And so the Magdalen Islands are noted for many things — the birds that always come — the winds that never leave — but most of all for a "veree happee people".

A road winds its way along the sandy shore. Scene at Pointe-Basse on Alright Island.

His Royal Highness the Duke of Edinburgh and His Excellency The Right Honourable Vincent Massey, C.H., Governor General of Canada, at the banquet held in the Chateau Laurier Hotel, Ottawa.

Dominion-Wide

"The English-Speaking Union"*

by His Excellency The Right Honourable VINCENT MASSEY, C.H.

Your Royal Highness, Ladies and Gentlemen,

Before proceeding with my remarks, I should like to convey to His Royal Highness the Duke of Edinburgh the warmest of welcomes to Canada on behalf of all Canadians. His Royal Highness has come a long way to be with us and he has greatly honoured this country, as well as this Union, by taking the Chair tonight as its President.

It gives me great pleasure to be with you this evening, and I am grateful for the invitation which has brought me here. My pleasure is, I must confess, tempered by a sense of apprehension. I face a very distinguished—indeed, a formidable—audience. The subjects, too, treated on such occasions are sufficient to daunt the most foolhardy speaker! They present frightening pitfalls in the form of platitudes or indiscretions. But I remember the advice I once received from a colleague:

> "The important thing", he said, "is to make your platitudes sound like indiscretions."

We are united here this evening in a firm belief in the high purpose to which the English-Speaking Union is dedicated, and we are happy to pay tribute to those who brought it into being. Sir Evelyn Wrench we welcome as the man whose imagination and energy led to the foundation of the union forty years ago.

At a meeting such as this, when we consider our beginnings, how we came to be, and what we have done in the past, we cannot help but ask what holds us together; what driving force has caused us to grow and prosper as we have done? At one time, when the members of the union were drawn chiefly from the two great English-speaking nations, its object being to forge links of understanding between them, the answer to this question was simpler than it is now. Today, we are happy to have in our membership people of many different races and languages. We are proud to have them, but we naturally ask, "Does this changing membership change our character? What does now unite us?"

We call ourselves "The English-Speaking Union", and yet the members in this room

*This speech was delivered by His Excellency on 30 October 1958 on the occasion of the World Branches Conference of the English-Speaking Union held in Ottawa during the last week of October.

represent a chain of nations and territories in which, taken all together, English is the language of the minority. In some Commonwealth countries it is spoken by a small minority; in some it is one of two official languages. In Canada, for instance, one third of our people speak French as their mother tongue. And, may I say, we Canadians are the better for this. Canada is a richer country because of its two cultures and two languages.

J'aimerais dire quelques mots à mes amis canadiens français dans leur langue maternelle. Bien qu'il soit difficile de mesurer dans toute son ampleur l'importance de la contribution française à la nation canadienne, je crois qu'aujourd'hui, mieux que par le passé, nous savons reconnaître et apprécier le rôle très important que jouent nos concitoyens de langue française dans notre vie nationale.

Perhaps we might regard the English-Speaking Union as a body whose high aims and vitality and success have led its functions to outgrow its name. In any event, labels are less important than what is labelled, and if there is a cheerful disregard of logic in the use of our title, we must remember that logic has never been a mark of movements with an Anglo-Saxon background. (I was going to say "thank goodness!"—but that might be going too far!)

The high aims of the English-Speaking Union remain unchanged, however its membership may have broadened. Many of us, of course, own English as our native tongue. Great numbers have learned it in many parts of the globe, as a "lingua franca" enriched from numerous sources and mellowed by time. Those who have learned to speak it do so, very often, with a distinction that commands our admiration.

Today, the English-Speaking Union is united by an affection, or at least a respect, for one of the great languages of the world. Yet language and literature are not our only bond. There are other subtler and perhaps even stronger ties, which mean much to those of us whose native tongue may not be English. I am thinking of the English language not as a vernacular, nor as literature, but as a vehicle for ideas which are our common legacy. We may remind ourselves of certain noble traditions which English-speaking peoples may have sometimes neglected or forgotten, but which have always been theirs, defended by their greatest men speaking as the voice of the public conscience.

I think first of the links between free peoples. We know that the two original members of our union dissolved their connection and appeared as independent nations, after much bitterness of spirit. And yet even in those days, there were those who held that independence should be followed by close collaboration, based on common convictions and common aspirations for good and free government. Their successors on both sides of the Atlantic have laboured well to build and strengthen a fabric of friendship and understanding. We, in Canada, know how successful they have been.

In all dealings between strong and vigorous peoples there will be some hard passages but we here in this country can testify that never did a small community experience so much tolerance and goodwill from a powerful neighbour, as we have done over many years. And in Canada we have profited from the lesson learned from the separation of the two great English-speaking nations. We are deeply concerned that these two peoples should live in harmony and work as partners. It has often been said that one of Canada's international duties is that of an interpreter between them. That observation was confidently made long before Canada could so act—we were too small, too unimportant, too immature to play any such part. But, as often happens, events have overtaken rhetoric, and with our increasing strength and, I believe, an accompanying sense of responsibility, we are now able to attempt a role which fortune has assigned to us.

Canada has grown up in a community—the British Commonwealth—which has, as the principle of its existence, the bond of freedom. The new Commonwealth grew from the old Empire because the senior member of the English-Speaking Union realized that there was no greater imperial triumph than the recognition of new and independent nations. We in Canada know that well—our achievement of full nationhood received the blessing

and the aid of our kinsmen across the sea. Such recognition is not always easy. But in our tradition, it has always, in the end, been accepted as right. We can, indeed, justify the claim that English is the language of freedom.

The word "freedom" is always stimulating. How many examples one can think of in our English-speaking world! I am tempted to mention a little incident which occurred during a visit to England years ago. I remember it well. As I was driving through London, I saw a speaker addressing a group of people from a scarlet rostrum in a little square. Leaving my engine running, I paused for a moment to hear what he was saying. He was engaged in denouncing the established order, and calling for its destruction. A policeman—representing that same established order—came up and said,

> "I'm sorry, sir, but would you mind turning off your engine—the crowd can't hear what the gentleman is saying"!

But to return to the international sphere, we realize that the rights of nationalism are not, in themselves, enough. We in this century know too well how this can easily breed division and hatred. The nations represented in this Union, however, have a unity that underlies their separation. It derives from the English common law, widely used where English is spoken. Our unity, however, does not depend on the law itself. It is, rather, the sense of law and of legal community that we all share. When the English, from the seventeenth to the nineteenth centuries were spreading over the globe, they were, at the same time, thinking deeply on the meaning of law and on its relation to human well-being. The ideas produced then have been received, absorbed and transformed by countless communities not originally English, which have learned much from those of English speech—and have taught much in return.

There is, therefore, a unifying principle in the body which is meeting here tonight. We share great ideas and a profound belief in them. All these lend immense importance to the work of a society which supports and promotes them. But, there are dangers. I wonder whether I might mention two or three. For one thing, we must beware of complacency, we English-speaking peoples; the finest ideals in the world can be tarnished by smugness. I hope that a little story which I heard the other day will not sound too flippant:

> "A member of a body committed to idealistic effort was asked to describe it. He replied very readily and enumerated the merits of his organization, concluding with the words, 'And we are tops for humility' "!

There is, I think, a moral in the anecdote.

Another danger is sentimentality. How often has a good cause been damaged by the lack of down to earth realism. Not long ago a phrase was used in a land which is the source of much vivid prose, to describe a sentimentalist:

> "That guy has a heart so warm that it's melted his backbone."

Warm hearts are essential in human life, but they cannot be the only equipment. I am uncomfortably aware that sentimentality is never so menacing as it is after dinner!

Another risk we must avoid, as far as we can, is the cult of uniformity. Standardization is often essential in the material sphere; it must not be allowed to invade the things of the mind. Good relations between communities are not dependent on similarity between them. On the other hand, they are greatly aided by the honest recognition of diversity. Indeed, the toleration of differences is a measure of civilization. That we believe in the English-speaking world.

The common language which happily links the two greatest English-speaking partners, can, now and then, have a confusing effect on relations between them. When peoples speak the same language, it is easy to assume that their institutions are the same; that their views are identical. That, of course, is not true and the world would be far less interesting if it were. But to turn to fundamentals: in those things that have the deepest meaning, the peoples within the bounds of the English-speaking world possess a unity of mind. That is the basis of collaboration between them, and without such collaboration — one need not remind this gathering — our civilization could hardly survive.

I have suggested that we share a sense of law. But, again, such a sense, even of just and

humane law, is not enough. At one time we thought it was. Increasingly, in the twentieth century we understand that law is not a machine, a handy substitute for personal power and personal responsibility. The English, concerned with the operation of their ancient but ever-growing legal processes could, perhaps, forget this in former years. But they found correction in their sense of the practical. A very simple illustration occurs to me — a story told by an Englishman who had seen long service in India:

> "A district magistrate was sitting in his court one day deep in the complexities of a tedious case, when a man rushed in, flung a mangled limb in front of him and exclaimed, 'How can you sit here talking about law when a tiger is eating my son ?' It was, says the narrator, a view of government which appealed strongly to the magistrate, who promptly adjourned the court and went out and shot the tiger."

In the twentieth century, confronted by the tiger of intellectual, moral and spiritual revolution, we realize that our neat nineteenth century theories of law, liberty and legislation, excellent though they may be, are not sufficient in themselves — that indeed, in this age of confusion, they can be turned into nonsense. Increasingly, we see that we live in a world where, with all our laws, we still depend very greatly on power exercised by persons over other persons.

Our thinking on such subjects, as we know, has undergone great changes. We regard the governance of one people by another not as permanent, but as a temporary measure of guardianship for communities labouring under some form of disability — as a prelude to increasing freedom. How often and how well has this been demonstrated in the British Commonwealth in recent years!

And yet, for all our liberal beliefs, and all our striving for international law and government, we still live in a world of power politics. We must ask ourselves, viewing the facts of the exercise of power in modern life, whether we have anything in our tradition to help to preserve us from the evil consequences which can flow from this.

I think the answer is that we have. We have traditions of the right use of power just as old as our laws. I do not say that they are peculiar to the English-speaking world, but I think no other communities have preserved them so long and so faithfully. May I mention two ?

The first tradition is that power must be used for the general good. It may seem arrogant to claim that principle as our own, and it would be if the claim were made exclusively. But it was a Frenchman who said of Great Britain in the nineteenth century that no country had ever had so much power and abused it so little. I believe that the same claim could be made for the United States in the twentieth century. To all in our English-speaking tradition, there could be no higher praise than that. It expresses, if not what we are, at least what we honestly wish to be.

Another tradition which belongs to the English-speaking world, is the sharing of power as widely as possible with all over whom it must be exercised. It is always hard for the holder of power to lay it down. It is the glory of our union of English-speaking peoples that the fiercest altercations about the proper distribution of power have been settled, not always without strife, but with remarkably little of it. And deep bonds of friendship have endured the strife, and lived beyond it.

An inscription recently drafted by a Canadian scholar will be cut on a rock to be placed where the international boundary passes through the St. Lawrence Seaway. It runs thus:

> "This stone bears witness to the common purpose of two nations whose frontiers are the frontiers of friendship, whose ways are the ways of freedom and whose works are the works of peace."

That sentence can be applied to the relations between all the communities represented in our English-Speaking Union. It should be engraved in our own hearts and cherished not as a boast but as a pledge. Our partnership carries with a common language not only a great legacy of law and freedom, but a deep sense of the moral imperatives of power. This inheritance it is for us to maintain and strengthen. Let us remember that in so doing, we serve not only ourselves but the whole world.

Konka Gompa, a tiny monastery at the foot of Minya Konka, served as the base of the party.

An Ascent of Minya Konka

by SHIH CHAN-CHUN[1]

Photographs, map and diagram courtesy of author

It was an exceptionally hot day when we reached Konka Gompa, the tiny monastery standing on a grass bench 12,000 feet above sea level at the very foot of a mountain glacier. Hardly a year before, together with a party of Soviet mountaineers, we had conquered Mount Mustagh Ata[2] in the Pamirs and this had marked the start of China's excursion into mountaineering. Now, on 14 May 1957, our group of solely Chinese mountaineers had arrived in the Buchu Valley to climb the still higher Minya Konka, 24,895 feet above sea level. It was a pioneering effort for China.

Our expedition, sponsored by the All-China Federation of Trade Unions, consisted of twenty-nine men, of whom seventeen were mountaineers. The others included doctors, radio operators, interpreters and cooks who

[1] The author was the leader of the expedition described in this article.

[2] The height of Mustagh Ata has been recorded as 24,388 feet.

were to remain in the monastery, for that was to be our base. Of the mountaineers, one was a welder, another an electrical worker, a third a lumberjack. There were also a fireman and three young scientists from college. The youngest was twenty and the oldest was twenty-nine. Hsu Ching, the deputy leader of our party, was a labour insurance expert. I am a section head of the physical culture department of the All-China Federation of Trade Unions.

To reach our base we had travelled from Kangting (Tatsienlu), the well-known pass into Tibet. We came by truck along the Sikang-Tibet highway, which had been completed just two years earlier. Then, when we arrived at Yinkwanchai, we hired sixty horses and forty yaks to carry us and our packs to the lamasery.

Geographical and Historical Background of Minya Konka

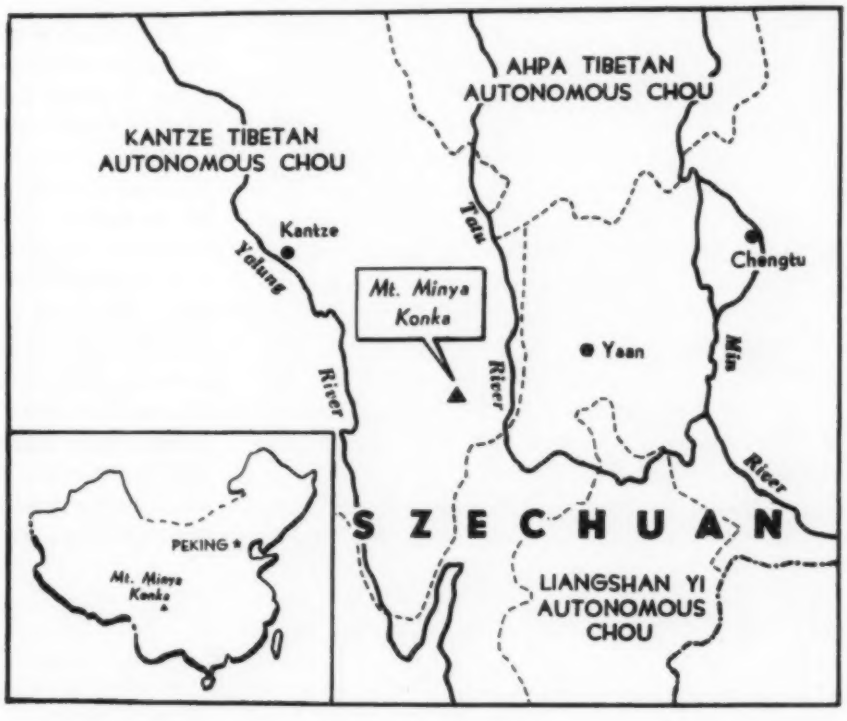
A word about Minya Konka's background. Between the great red basin of Szechwan and the high Tibetan grasslands in Southwest China stands a range of giant, snow-clad mountains. Minya Konka is the highest peak in this range. Local people call it "The King of Mountains". In the Tibetan language the name means "The White Ice Mountain of Minyag".

It presents a prospect of surpassing grandeur in clear weather. But more often than not clouds veil the summit in mist and create the atmosphere of fascinating mystery which has traditionally surrounded Minya Konka.

It is not surprising that its immense size and grim majesty have engendered awe and reverence through the ages. Tibetans have long worshipped it as holy. Yet its name is seldom found in the ancient books of China. Its existence was never recorded until about 400 years ago, when the noted traveller Hsu Hsia-ke discerned this snow-capped giant looming on the west horizon when he visited Mount Omei in Szechwan.

In modern times a scientific observation of the mountain was first made in 1879 by an expedition led by the Hungarian explorer, Count Bela Szechenyi. He reported its altitude to be about 24,900 feet. When J. H. Edgar, the Australian professor who used to teach in the West China Union University in Chengtu, first saw the mountain in 1903, he was so fascinated by it that he wrote that neither poet nor artist could adequately describe the glorious spectacle. He estimated its peak to be about 30,000 feet, even higher than Mount Everest.

In 1929, Dr. Joseph F. Rock, leader of the National Geographic Society's Yunnan-Szechwan expedition, took some magnificent photographs of the mountain and estimated its height to be about 25,600 feet.



Sketch map showing the location of Mount Minya Konka.

Konka Longba, or Valley of the Snow Peaks, with Mount Minya Konka in the background.

Dr. Arnold Heim, a Swiss professor, visited the region in 1929 and 1930 with an expedition from Sun Yat Sen University in Canton. They spent ten months in detailed study there and also confirmed the existence of three principal glaciers: the Gongkar Glacier on the western face, and the Yantsoko Glacier and Hailoko Glacier on the eastern face of Minya Konka. With field glasses, Heim discovered that the triangular peak was of granite. Professor Imhof of the same expedition concluded that the altitude was about 25,300 feet.

Minya Konka was first scaled in the Sikang Expedition in 1932. Four American mountaineers, Richard L. Burdsall, Arthur B. Emmons, Terris Moore and Jack Theodore Young, made the effort and two, Burdsall and Moore, reached the summit. In their illustrated book, *Men Against the Clouds*, they gave a full description of their climb, with hunting and surveying notes appended. The altitude at which they placed the summit was 24,891 feet. To date, this book is the most detailed story about Minya Konka.

Preliminary Reconnaissance

Awakening after midnight on 17 May, three days after our arrival at Konka Gompa, our deputy leader, Hsu Ching, saw the full moon riding high in the heavens. The weather had cleared. He woke us all to look at Minya Konka. The pale moonlight as it shimmered on the distant snow made the peaks seem utterly beautiful and fantastic. Konka's pyramid summit rose to a noble height, the very embodiment of majesty, lording it over its sister peaks. The razor-like snow ridges shone in the darkness.

Just a year before, an advance team of our expedition had come here to locate a climbing route to the summit. Its eastern and southern approaches looked much the same, dropping away in stupendous cliffs, too steep to hold much snow. Climbing seemed out of the question. But the long north-west ridge, though with many difficult stretches, seemed negotiable. Now Hsu Ching and his reconnaissance party had the task of finding a trail to its spur.

The morning dawned fine as the six of them set out, carrying mountaineering equipment made in China and provisions for several days. They followed the glacier moraine, forded a turbulent stream and made their way along the valley called Konka Longba or "Valley of the Snow Peaks", into which the main glaciers of Minya Konka discharge.

A fanciful local legend says that when Rujema, milkmaid daughter of the mountain god Dorjelutru, let her favourite cow out to graze, a hunter mistook it for a deer and shot it. He ate its flesh and hung its head on the door of his house. As Rujema wandered over the mountain looking for the cow and calling it, the head on the door responded, leading her to the house. In her rage at finding her favourite dead,

she called down thunder on the house and caused the hunter and his family to be killed. And returning, she kicked over her milk pail and the milk flowed down the mountain side in torrents. To save the monastery and its dwellers from destruction, General Koda in Konka Gompa struck the rock with his magic hammer and immediately the flow stopped. The imprint of General Koda's hammer is said to be discernible on the rock to this day.

The valley is flanked by two snow ranges which, like two arms, extend northward and southward of Minya Konka for over ninety miles. More than twenty peaks, all over 20,000 feet high, are found above the timber or snow lines. The most beautiful, next to Minya Konka, are Longgemain and Daddomain, rising immediately to the north and reaching heights of 22,500 feet and 21,500 feet respectively. Fleecy clouds rest on their summits and they appear united by a gracefully curved spur. To the south and a little to the west a peak called Nyambo Konka forms the end of the Minya Konka chain.

Below the snow line stately virgin forests of fir, beech and oak, rich in rhododendron undergrowth, fill the valley. The alpine meadow is carpeted with flowers of great variety: primulas, anemones, calthas, bignoniaceous trumpet flowers and others which could not be identified.

The region is rich in fauna as well. Tigers, leopards, foxes, musk-deer, grizzly bears and blue sheep roam the forests and the rocky cliffs. Birds of all kinds are there: the Tibetan white-eared pheasant, a fine black and white bird forty inches long; the green-breasted Stone's pheasant; the snow cock; and the pretty little sifan partridge.

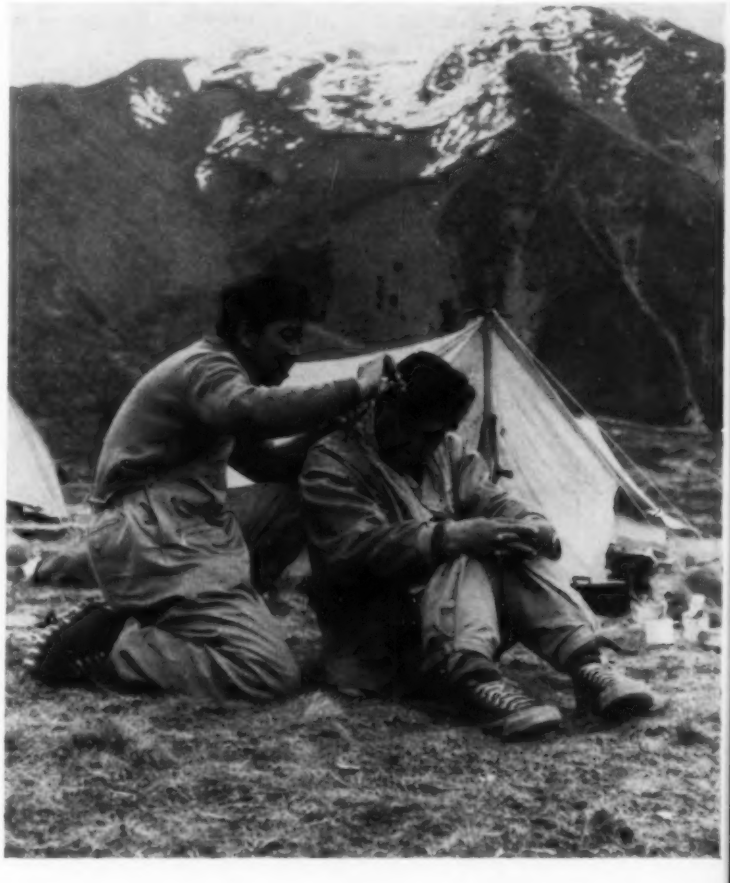
A long strip of hempcloth with a Tibetan inscription, hung in one of the rooms of the monastery, reveals the Tibetans' love for Minya Konka. There is no more beautiful spot on earth than Minya Konka, it says. One night spent on the mountain is equivalent to ten years of private meditation and constant prayer.

For four hours the reconnaissance party trudged along the rugged glacier moraine. Sweat-soaked, ankles and knees aching painfully, they came at last to a flat by a stream at the foot of the mountain. Here they pitched what later became our first camp, at an elevation of 14,100 feet.

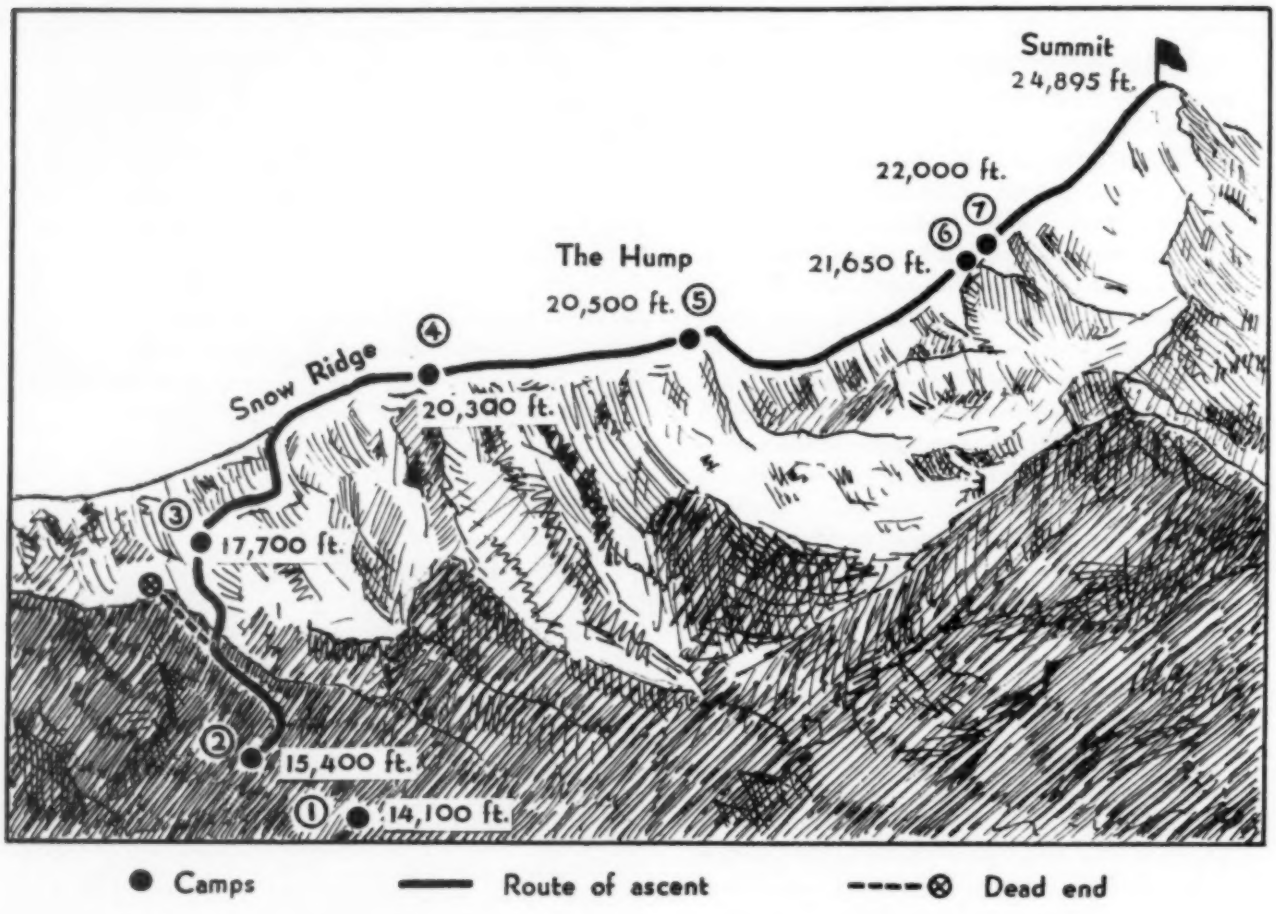
At noon the sun's heat, pouring down out of a cloudless sky, forced them to strip down to their woollen underwear. Soon they were suffering from sunburn and face blisters. The ultra-violet rays penetrated crevices in their sun-goggles and caused blinding headaches.

By nightfall the party reached the end of the glacier moraine and they set up Camp II at an elevation of 15,400 feet. Another 1,600 feet or so up they would reach the highest point attained by Heim's expedition twenty-seven years before. They decided to reconnoitre the snow area the following day.

Suddenly the treacherous mountain weather enveloped the peaks in dense clouds. Thunder rolled just 3,000 feet above the camp. During the night a heavy snowstorm completely changed the appearance of Minya Konka. Avalanches and jagged lumps of rock rolled down with great rumbling as though the earth were bursting asunder.



To be a mountaineer, one sometimes has to be a barber, too.



The route to the summit, showing the different camps established by the party.

The snowstorm ceased the next day, but clouds still circled the mountain half-way up. At last the reconnaissance party found a rocky slope 1,600 feet high, by which it appeared the spur could be reached, though it was composed of loose stones and gave very insecure footing. Struggling with loads almost half their body weight, the six men stepped forward, keeping behind each other in diagonal formation rather than Indian file, to avoid serious injury by the rolling stones. Their packs made balance difficult. It took them almost all day to climb the slope.

To their great disappointment, when they reached the top they found only precipices all around. There was no negotiable route to the spur. It was getting dark. Black clouds gathered in the sky. It was impossible to return, yet no place could be found to camp. Finally, on a platform of rock scarcely twenty square feet in area, they huddled together, their feet hanging over the edge. They dared not sleep for fear of falling down the cliff. In this way they passed an uncomfortable night of snowstorms, wet clothes and numb hands and feet.

The Route to the Ridge

When we heard the report of this reconnaissance, we decided that seven other members of the party and I should make a second try at charting the lay of the land. We followed a different trail, a snow-covered ascent over very uneven ground, flanked by a rocky slope to the north and an avalanche track to the right of the Lesser Gongkar Glacier (north). The day on which we set out was hot. The burning sun made our faces peel. Thirst drove us to suck snow, though this is, strictly speak-

ing, forbidden in mountaineering. At 17,000 feet we were scorched by the fierce sunshine reflected from the snow. Our progress on lower parts of the slope slowed down in places where the snow had collected and become softer in the heat of the sun. Higher up, every now and then we had to stop and knock the snow off our crampons for fear of slipping and tumbling down the steep slope whose angle for this stretch was some seventy degrees. Cutting steps with our ice-axes here, we climbed on, the man taking the lead carefully sounding out the path with his ice-axe, searching for signs of those insidious, ever-present snow-covered crevasses which have ended the career of more than one skilled mountaineer and whose presence is often nearly impossible to detect.

Suddenly the rope grew taut. Liu Lian-man, the fireman, had dropped from sight. Almost thrown off balance, Shih Hsiu, the newspaper correspondent, drove his ice-axe into the snow, belaying the rope around it. So also did Liu Ta-yi, the electrical worker, in the rear of our party. It was some time before Liu Lian-man with great effort struggled out of the pit into which he had stepped. Panting, he rested for some time before he could set out again. He had seen a wonderful spectacle in the crevasse, he told us later. It was as though he hung from the roof of a crystal palace of immense depth and width, shot with hundreds of thousands of icicles and ice pinnacles.

At the end of this day we established Camp III on a hummock under a cornice, at a height of 17,700 feet. That night, ice particles, blown by the alpine wind, beat at our tents with a sound of thunder. Yet our fatigue soon persuaded us to fall soundly asleep.

When we woke, we were enveloped in mist. Though the sun had risen, visibility was poor. Ahead the slope reared steep and, to make matters worse, two gaping fissures stood in our way. Cutting steps and handholds, we finally managed to skirt the last fissure and came to a bridge formed by perennial snow. To distribute our weight evenly, we crawled across singly, lying almost flat, each man anchored to the others in case of emergency. Eventually we reached the 20,300-foot spur towards which we were struggling.

Once there, we set to work surveying the route to the summit, taking photographs and drawing maps. We passed two nights of snowstorms at a fourth camp that we established on the spur. The second night we were nearly suffocated, when a six-foot fall of snow buried us in our tents. In great haste we scrambled our way out of the tents and snow, leaving our mittens, socks, parkas and boots behind. It was still snowing heavily. The temperature was −4° Fahrenheit. As soon as it was light, we started hacking through to the tents to recover our clothes, but it took us till six o'clock in the evening. By the time we were properly dressed the weather had cleared, with a starry sky above. We decided to go back. By the light of the moon we slowly descended to the base camp, where we were greeted with relief by our comrades. Our return was overdue.

Two members of the party struggle out of a 150-foot crevasse into which they fell.

An Avalanche and a Victim

Very often, on a clear summer's day, Tibetans who live in the valleys near Minya Konka hear a great rumbling. This is the noise of the avalanches. Sometimes 20,000 or even 30,000 tons of ice and snow hurtle down a precipice in a single rush. The movements can be heard a dozen miles away.

While we were away on our reconnaissance, the members of our party in the base camp made several trial marches to acclimatize themselves to greater heights. On 28 May thirteen of them set out for Camp III. They had to cross an avalanche track on the way. They were half-way across, when Hsu Ching gave a warning shout. The next moment a medium-sized vaporous avalanche of several hundred tons of snow came rumbling down the track, and swept the whole party along with it for several hundred yards, until it stopped by a gradient.

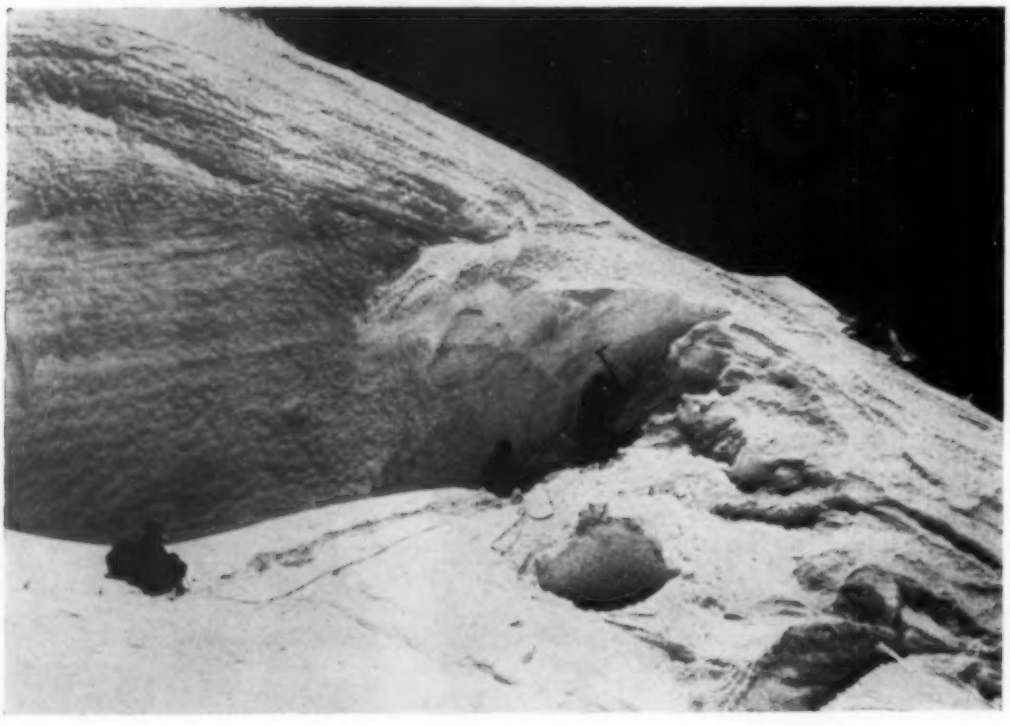
Those who were not too deeply buried struggled out of the snow by themselves and went to the rescue of the others. Some were dragged out after shovelling and scraping and these desperately removed the snow from their mouths and noses to take breath. A few were at a dangerous stage by the time they were rescued. They could no longer move their hands or feet. Finally all were saved except one.

Ting Hsing-you, the popular young meteorologist, had been swept along and buried upside down in six feet of snow. It was thirty minutes before he was found, some distance from the rest of the party. His pulse had stopped. For three hours artificial respiration was applied, but he could not be saved. The party withdrew to Camp II. That night all were plunged in grief for Ting.

The Attack Begins

Finally, on 4 June, each carrying a fifty-five pound pack, our party of seventeen set out from the monastery for the final assault. Snowfall during the previous few days had buried the track waist-deep. The man in the lead had to be replaced frequently as charting the way was most fatiguing. It took us a day to reach Camp II and we stopped there for the night. For the next two days snowstorms confined us to our tents.

There was a minor incident on 8 June, when we reached 17,400 feet. Four members of the group tumbled down a slope and lost their equip-



Negotiating the ice slope by cutting foot steps with the ice-axe.

Camp V on the Hump at an elevation of 20,500 feet, with the summit in the background.

ment. They had to return to base. That day the remaining thirteen reached Camp III.

Here is an entry from my log-book on 9 June: "We are on the spur at Camp IV, 20,300 feet above sea level. The high altitude is beginning to have its effect. Several of our lads feel dizzy and weak. There is nose-bleeding and nausea. They cannot go any further. We must leave a few people to look after the sick so that only six of us will go forward to the attack on the peak, Shih Hsiu, Peng Chung-mu (a forest worker) and Kuo Teh-tsen (an office worker) roped together in one group and Liu Lian-man, Liu Ta-yi and me in another."

The Hump

By 10 June we came to the "Hump", the most difficult stretch of all. When we climbed to the top, we found a precipice with an eighty-degree wall, some 300 feet high on the other side. As it was late, we went back and set up Camp V at an elevation of 20,500 feet. The next day we tied our ropes together but these were sixty-five feet short. Still, we managed to make the descent, belaying the rope around an ice-axe driven into the snow on the top of the wall, and covering the last sixty-five feet without the help of the rope. Only one of us, Liu Lian-man, slipped while descending this last stretch. Fortunately a snow bridge over the gaping fissure below the wall stopped his fall. Otherwise he would have continued down a sheer precipice by the side of the wall for another 6,500 feet. It took the six of us three hours to make the descent.

By the afternoon of 11 June we had gone forward from the bottom of the ice wall to an altitude of 21,650 feet where, after levelling a space on the slope of the ice and snow, we set up Camp VI. Soon a snowstorm swept over us. This was dangerous as our food had run short. We had only twenty bits of confectionery left in our pockets, a few peanuts, some glucose powder and a few scraps of ginseng — the famous Chinese tonic root — which was one of the native medicines we had brought with us. Had the snow continued for a few more days, we would have had to turn back in defeat.

We were now only 3,250 feet from the summit. To ensure success and a safe return, we climbed slightly more than one hundred yards on 12 June despite the snowstorm and set up our seventh and final camp at an altitude of 22,000 feet. Beyond there was no place to camp

Negotiating an exceedingly steep slope—one of the most difficult stretches.

at all, the slope being at an exceedingly steep angle and covered with thick, hard ice.

We had a sleepless night at our last camp. From time to time we rose to see if the weather had cleared. An hour after midnight we were as excited as children by the sight outside the tent. The snowstorm had stopped. The mist had dispersed. The clear moon, shining in a blue-black sky dotted with stars, picked out for us the route to the summit.

By three a.m., after a breakfast of a sweet apiece and a few scraps of ginseng, we had set forth. As for water, we had completely given up the idea, for it took two and a half hours to melt and boil a pot of water at this altitude. We carried only the flag, an altimeter, the cosmic-ray indicator, a thermometer, cameras and a metal container. We were happy that we could now leave our packs behind.

Victory and Loss

It was precisely one-thirty in the afternoon of 13 June when we reached the summit of Minya Konka — a memorable moment. Around us stretched the horizon in one unbroken ring. The tremendous snow peaks that had dominated the skyline as we made our way up had now dwindled to a series of white patches against the brown of the lower plains.

We set up the Chinese flag on the summit and signed a record giving the details and date of our ascent. This we placed in the metal container we had brought and buried under the cairn. With an ice-axe we cut a piece of granite from the cone of the summit as a memento. Then we took some photographs and at two-fifteen, just as the mists once again began to rise, we left for our descent.

We had gone only a short way when a great snowstorm burst, with heavy thunder and lightning. We stopped for a time, but as it showed no sign of ending we set out again at six o'clock. In the heavy mist we could not find our last two iron pitons, which as a precaution we had put on one side. Now we came to an icy slope as smooth and hard as glass, on which our crampons and ice-axes proved useless. Driven by the high velocity wind, we had the

greatest difficulty in keeping our balance on it. Liu Ta-yi went first but slipped, and I and Liu Lian-man followed him down. Fortunately, near the foot of the slope, I hit a large stone which I embraced and held on to with all my strength. This stopped our fall down an abyss at whose bottom we surmised lay the Lesser Gongkar Glacier (south). But our second group of three, led by Peng Chung-mu, were not so fortunate. They, too, slipped in negotiating this terrible slope and they failed to grasp at anything that could break their fall. We saw them hurtle into space.

With heavy hearts, we dug a cave in a gaping fissure by the side of the ridge. It was a miserable night the three of us passed, huddled together as the snowstorm raged outside.

The next day the weather cleared. There was no trace of those lost. We reached Camp VII by nine-thirty in the morning and then by stages made our way back to our base camp where we arrived on 16 June. Our comrades welcomed us with mixed joy and grief.

Immediately we sent a party to reconnoitre the Lesser Gongkar Glacier, but in fifteen days they could find no sign of our three friends. As they were among the best mountaineers of China, their loss was irreparable for the country. For myself, it was made still more painful by the recollection of the many difficulties we had conquered together.

Minya Konka has again been vanquished. Our goal has been achieved. But four of our comrades fell in the battle. This record I dedicate to them. They will live forever in our memories.

Shih Hsiu, Liu Lian-man, Peng Chung-mu, Kuo Teh-tsen and Shih Chan-chun (left to right) on the summit. They are signing a record giving the details and date of their ascent.

A party of British mountaineers at Zermatt, Switzerland, in the 1870s.

The Alpine Club of London

by SIR JOHN HUNT

U.K.I.O. photographs

THE Alpine Club was officially constituted in London, England, on 22 December 1857, but plans for its founding had been started as early as February that year. At that time mountaineering as a sport was in its infancy; this was the first club of its kind to be formed. It was intended to be an exploratory, as much as a mere "climbing" fraternity, for the Alps at that time were in many districts virtually unknown and unmapped.

British mountaineering up to the mid-nineteenth century had been largely a matter of making ascents of Mont Blanc (first climbed in 1786); but two factors were contributing to a change of outlook. Firstly, the scientific study of glacier movements, particularly in the 1840s, and secondly, the great extension of railways in Europe at the mid-century, which rendered the mountains much more accessible to travellers.

At first, climbing for sport was regarded, at best, as an eccentric pastime, and Murray's Guide to Switzerland (1840) contained the quaint remark that of the men who had ascended Mont Blanc, a number proved later to be of unsound mind. The pioneers were accordingly glad to make science at least the ostensible reason for their activities; but detailed map-making and exploration of valleys was a real need, much as is the case in the Himalaya today.

Many of the early members of the Alpine Club were university dons, scholars and lawyers. (It used to be said that if you met an Englishman in the Alps it was odds of ten to one that he was a university man; seven to one that he was a Cambridge man; and an even chance that he was a Fellow of his College.)

From the outset, a climbing qualification was demanded; but certain alternatives were provided, such as suitable contributions to the scientific study of mountains, or to their literature or art. Thus Ruskin was elected a member purely on an artistic qualification.

Membership of the Alpine Club has never been confined to the British, though naturally they predominate. Many climbers of other nationalities, including Swiss, French, Italians, Austrians, Germans and Americans have been members, and the Club's highest distinction of honorary membership has mainly been reserved for such members. Furthermore, though the character of the club was certainly stamped out by the university and professional classes from which so many of its earlier members were drawn, it has never had a social qualification, and one of its very earliest members was an entirely self-educated man

Among the many famous people who are members of the Alpine Club is Sir Edmund Hillary, seen here (right) with Sherpa Tensing on the Lhotse face of Mount Everest during the successful climb in 1953.
The Mount Everest Foundation

who began his career as a stonemason's assistant.

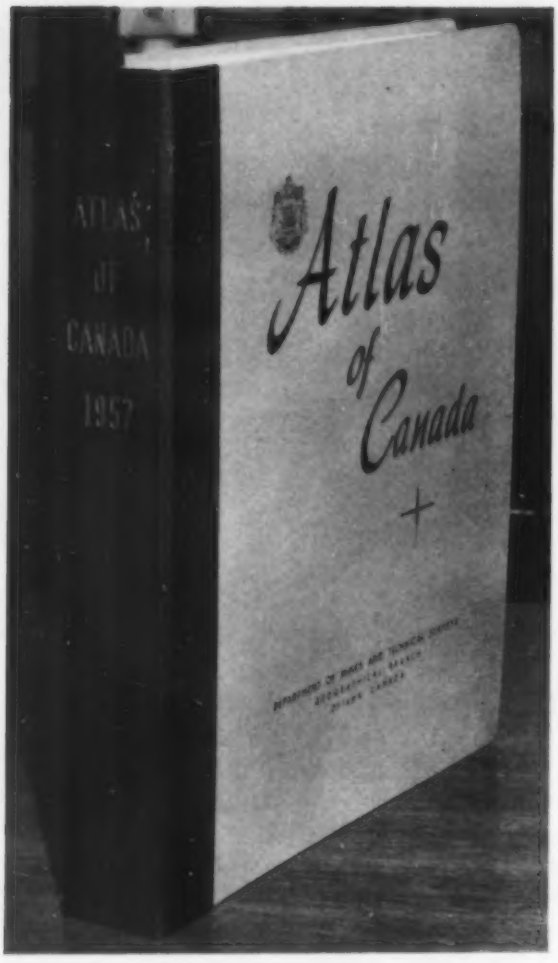
Apart from the impetus given by the formation of a mountaineering club (an example followed later by other countries), the Alpine Club early made three big contributions to the opening up of the Alps—by the production of a detailed large-scale climbing map of the Mont Blanc range; by the publication of a massive guide book (known, after its initiator and the club's first president, as Ball's Alpine Guide) that covered the Alps on the widest scale and dealt not only with climbing, but also the geology, botany and other scientific aspects, of the region; and by commencing a regular annual Journal in which the members' climbs and explorations were described. Later, small pocket guide books, for practical use in climbing, were produced, and were the forerunners of the elaborate works now produced by the continental clubs.

The period from 1857 to 1865, which has been called the Golden Age of Alpine Climbing, ended with the first, tragic ascent of the Matterhorn, when four of the climbers fell to their deaths on the way down. The period 1865 to 1880 was one of exploration of the lesser valleys, and of consolidation of results. Between 1880 and 1914, the major peaks of the Alps having all been climbed, new routes were opened up on old mountains, and the lower peaks, which the pioneers had ignored, were climbed for the first time. The focus of activity now began to shift away from the Alps to ranges further afield—the Caucasus, Himalaya, Karakoram, New Zealand, Andes, and North America. In all these, members of the Alpine Club played an important, often a leading role.

Between 1919 and 1939 the Himalaya dominated the scene, with Mount Everest occupying the foreground. After World War Two, especially as the result of the opening of Nepal to travellers, the Himalaya again figured first in mountaineering activities. During the first third of this century, moreover, mountains hitherto little considered came into vogue, such as those of East and Central Africa, the Antarctic, Greenland, and elsewhere.

The Alpine Club has often been accused of being staid and old-fashioned; for this, the intrusion into the sport of the spirit of nationalism and the urge for sensationalism in the modern press are at least partly responsible. It was a relief when Everest was at last climbed, so ending mere height-record breaking, as well as proving that British mountaineers were not as effete as some had supposed. Today they are again to the fore, both in climbing the most difficult routes in the Alps and pioneering new ascents in ranges further afield. Many of these mountaineers are not members of the Alpine Club, since numerous other mountaineering clubs have now come into existence with the greatly widened interest in the sport. But it may fairly be claimed that the Alpine Club which in 1857 symbolized the birth of a new sport, is not only active in leadership today, but has inspired the achievements of many outside its ranks.

Sir John Hunt, President of the Alpine Club and leader of the historic Everest expedition in 1953. The photograph was taken at the base camp at Thyangboche at the foot of the mountain.



The dimensions of the Atlas of Canada *are 21" x 16" x 3". The loose-leaf binder allows individual sheets to be removed for study and will also enable sheets to be replaced as new editions are produced.*

The Atlas of Canada

by N. L. NICHOLSON

In 1595, a year after the death of the famous cartographer Gerardus Mercator, his collection of maps entitled *Atlas or thoughts and deeds of a cosmographer, regarding the creation of the world and the shape of all created things* was published. The title page showed a man bearing the world on his shoulders reminiscent of the Greek god Atlas who was forced to support the heavens. Atlas was also the name of a mythical king of Libya whom Mercator is said to have admired for his ability as a mathematician, philosopher and astronomer and who is reputed to have made the first celestial globe. Perhaps Mercator had both persons in mind when he devised his title, but whatever its true origin, the word "atlas" has since been universally applied by geographers to a collection of maps bound together.

Such collections date from the time of Ptolemy in the second century A.D. but were rather rare until after the middle of the sixteenth century. Some of these atlases, like Mercator's, were, and still are, general in nature, being primarily concerned with location in as many parts of the world as possible. Others were devoted to collections of maps of a single country. The first of these, compiled from 1574 to 1579, covered the counties of England and Wales, and in 1594 the first real atlas of France appeared. During the present century, an increasing number of these "single-country" atlases have been published.

One of the earliest was the *Atlas of Canada*, produced by the Government of Canada in 1906, a second edition of which appeared in 1915. In their day, these two volumes were milestones in this field of geographical publication, not the least because until that time no large country had attempted to produce a national atlas. They were widely acclaimed and, indeed, have continued to be used as works of reference up to the present time.

But these atlases have long been out of date. The Canada of 1915 is by no means the Canada of 1958. In few countries of the world have the changes of the past forty-three years been so striking or so capable of being shown on maps. Furthermore, more and more people are now interested in maps. Consequently, during World War II there were several moves afoot to produce a new *Atlas of Canada*. It was ultimately concluded that it could only properly be done by the Federal Government, as had been the case with the two previous editions. The Government took action in December 1948, overall responsibility resting with the Geographical Branch, Department of Mines and Technical Surveys.

The Planning Stage

Single sheets maps of various kinds are produced by several different departments of the Federal Government and because many of these departments would have to be involved

Right:—These two pages show Toronto land use in 1955 and Toronto urban growth, Ottawa land use in 1955 and Ottawa urban growth. 110 sheets make up the atlas which contains 450 maps relating to the various aspects of Canada's geography.

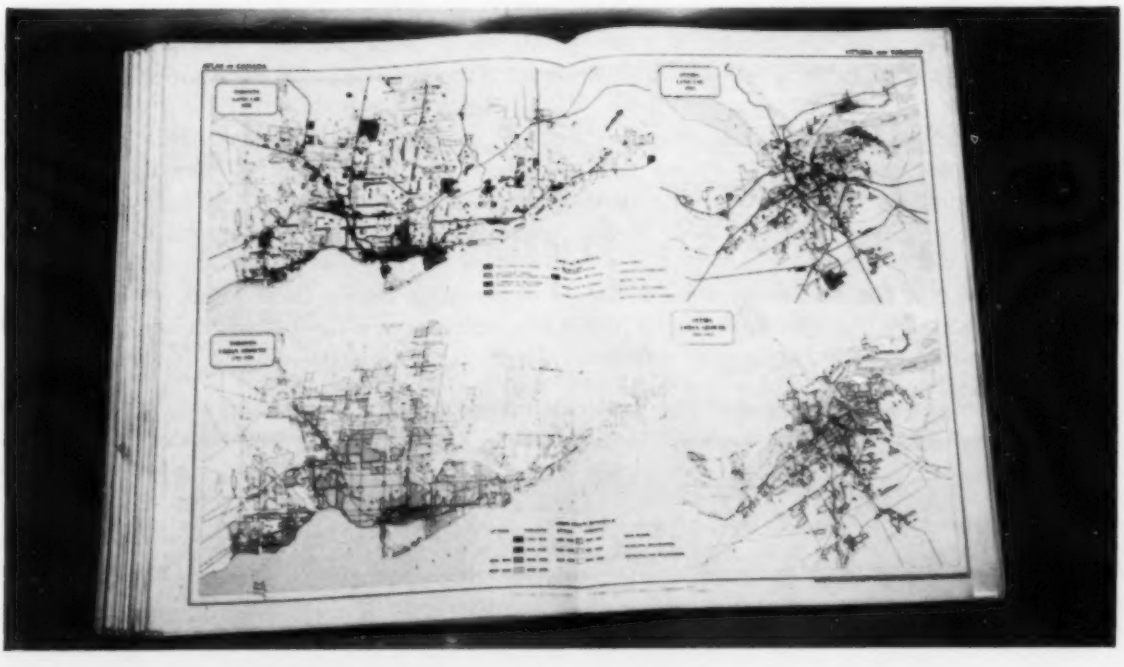
in the preparation of a new atlas, an Interdepartmental Committee was set up on which they were all represented.

The committee took the view that the *Atlas of Canada* should show the nature, extent and use of the physical resources of Canada and their effect on the economy and society of the country. At the same time it was recognized that such an atlas would also be an historic record of the stage of development of a country at a point of time. The *Atlas of Canada*, therefore, would indicate the degree to which resources have been used, the way in which they have been exploited, the growth of the economy and the extent of social, cultural and political development reached by Canada in 1951. Furthermore, if the *Atlas of Canada* was to be a national atlas in the best sense of the term, it should present to the Canadian people and the world at large, a selection of authoritative maps of high accuracy and reliability, as well as cartographic quality and artistry which, *when viewed in sequence*, should characterize and give meaning to the internal development of Canada and, to some extent, her international relations.

Preparation

The first necessities in the actual production of the atlas sheets were base maps — outline maps of Canada showing the major rivers, lines of latitude and longitude and other reference details needed for plotting accurately the geographical information to go over them. The fundamental base map was that which showed Canada as a whole on one sheet. When drawn according to the Lambert Conformal Conic projection and printed at a scale of 1:10,000,000 (approximately 158 miles to one inch) this fitted onto a sheet of about 20 inches by 27 inches. All the other maps in the atlas are on scales which are simple multiples of 1:10M — double (1:5M); four times (1:2½M); ten times (1:1M); half (1:20M) or one-fifth (1:50M).

Meanwhile, the material to be printed on the base maps was being collected. This material was submitted by the contributing departments in a variety of ways. Sometimes it was in the form of a well compiled and well drawn sheet which, apart from details as to style, form and lettering was almost ready for the printers. At the other end of the scale, some of the information submitted was merely in the form of raw data or statistics which had to be plotted or from which a suitable series of maps had to be completely designed and compiled. In a few instances information was not available in Ottawa, and either it had to be obtained from private individuals or provincial governments or the maps had to be compiled by people outside the Federal Service. As a result almost all of the 150 geographers in the country made some contribution to the work, as did a devoted band of draftsmen — some 25 in number. The first sheet was sent for final drafting and printing on 15 February 1955. With this sheet, as with all those which followed it, went a list of specifications, including the colours desired, the symbols to be used, and the style and size



of all lettering that was to appear on the face of the map. A real milestone was reached in September 1955 when the first of the 110 sheets came off the press. Interestingly enough it was Plate 52 — Aboriginal population — the sheet dealing with the earliest inhabitants of our country. The final sheet left the press on 31 October 1958.

The Contents

The sheets of the atlas have been arranged in such a way that if the atlas is read from beginning to end, as with a textbook, it gives a coherent story in maps of Canada's geography in all its aspects — historical, physical, human, economic, social and political. Thus the first three sheets deal with the origins of our country. One shows the routes taken by the principal explorers and the other two show portions of the original early maps which resulted from exploration. All the lettering on these two sheets was done by hand in order to imitate the style of the original map. They were then hand coloured so as to guide the printers in their efforts to make the printed maps look as much like the old maps as possible.

From the old maps, the atlas proceeds to modern mapping with examples of present-day topographical sheets and aeronautical and hydrographic charts. This leads to maps of the physical aspects of Canada's geography — relief, geology, magnetism, tides and an extensive section of fourteen sheets on various aspects of climate. This is followed by maps of drainage basins, profiles of major rivers, soil and forestry maps, and an interesting set of six sheets, each of which contains a number of small maps showing the ranges of representative insects, plants, trees, mammals, birds and inland fish.

The next section of the atlas is concerned with our human resources and shows such things as distribution of population, origins of the people, principal religions and birth, marriage, and death rates.

The third part of the atlas shows some of the ways in which the people have used the physical resources — what is generally referred to as economic geography. There are maps of fisheries, sawmills, pulp and paper mills, various aspects of agriculture, such as the distribution of farm animals and crops, mining, hydro and thermal electric power and manufacturing. This section ends with maps of transportation and communication which have developed as a result of resource use. They deal with canals, railways, airlines, shipping, and radio and television networks.

The last twenty maps in the atlas are concerned with the way in which institutions and towns, cities and rural municipalities have become distributed as a result of these activities. There are maps of hospitals, universities, libraries, art galleries and museums; all populated places, including large-scale maps of eight larger cities showing their growth and present land use; and maps of census divisions, and electoral districts. The last two sheets show the way in which Canada evolved politically from a series of colonies to a three-ocean state and our overseas partners in the Commonwealth, the United Nations Organization, the Colombo Plan and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

The loose-leaf binder, made in Canada of Canadian materials, was designed so that individual sheets may be removed for special study. It will also enable sheets to be replaced as new editions are produced.

Between 1595 and 1637, over thirty editions of Mercator's atlas were published, amounting to nearly 500 different maps. Then, as now, to know one's country, much less one's world, was to know how it is put together physically; how the different parts are related to one another; what ties this place to that or separates this region from another. In such an understanding, single country atlases are indispensable tools. Since 1915, the example of Canada has been followed by other large countries, as well as many smaller ones, in producing such atlases — the U.S.S.R., Brazil, Australia, India, France, Sweden, Belgium and Poland, to name but a few. It is hoped that the new edition of the *Atlas of Canada* will be worthy of its place beside these great works and aid the citizens of all countries, in addition to our own, in an understanding of the geography of our nation.

EDITOR'S NOTE-BOOK

O. Mary Hill (*Canada's Trade with The West Indies*) is a graduate of McGill University with a Master of Arts degree. She joined the Federal Government Service in 1952 and is editor of *Foreign Trade* in the Department of Trade and Commerce, Ottawa.

* * *

L. R. Linton (*Canada's Shangri-la—The Magdalen Islands*) is a free-lance writer and amateur naturalist. A native of New Brunswick, her home is now in British Columbia.

* * *

His Excellency The Right Honourable Vincent Massey, C.H. ("*The English-Speaking Union*") Governor General of Canada and Honorary Patron of the Society, addressed the English-Speaking Union World Branches Conference at a dinner held in the Chateau Laurier Hotel, Ottawa, on the evening of 30 October 1958. The text of His Excellency's address is presented in this issue.

* * *

Shih Chan-chun[1] (*An Ascent of Minya Konka*) was deputy leader of the mixed team of Chinese and Soviet climbers which scaled Mount Mustagh Ata in the Pamirs in 1956 and leader of the all-Chinese team which scaled the higher peak of Minya Konka in 1957.

* * *

Sir John Hunt (*The Alpine Club of London*) was born in India and educated in England at Marlborough College and at Sandhurst. He took an early interest in mountaineering and was the leader of the British expedition which conquered Mount Everest in 1953. In 1955 he was elected President of the Alpine Club.

* * *

N. L. Nicholson (*The Atlas of Canada*) is Director of the Geographical Branch, Department of Mines and Technical Surveys, Ottawa. He joined the department in 1949 after lecturing in geography at the University of Western Ontario, London. Dr. Nicholson writes from first-hand experience on the production of the new Atlas.

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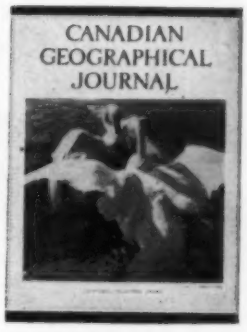

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Conference of the English-Speaking Union in Ottawa

The English-Speaking Union of the Commonwealth in co-operation with the English-Speaking Union of the United States held its third post-war Branches Conference during the last week of October 1958 in Ottawa. The two previous conferences had been held in London, England, in 1951, and in New York in 1954. Ottawa was chosen for this year's meeting on the invitation of the Chairman of the Canadian Provisional National Committee, the Hon. Mr. Justice D. C. Abbott, together with the Ottawa Branch.

The English-Speaking Union was founded in 1918 by Sir Evelyn Wrench. He expressed its purpose in the following pledge:

> Believing that the peace of the world and the progress of mankind can be largely helped by the unity in purpose of the English-speaking democracies, we pledge ourselves to promote by every means in our power a good understanding between the peoples of the United States of America and the British Commonwealth of Nations.

The purpose of the conference, which drew over 300 appointed delegates and observers besides hundreds of ordinary members from all parts of the Commonwealth and the United States, was to exchange views and to formulate plans for the more vital fulfilment of the Union's motto, "To draw together in the bond of comradeship the English-speaking peoples of the world."

Among the many delegates who came from England to attend this conference was the Chairman, Lord Baillieu; the two Joint Deputy-Chairmen, the Countess Alexander of Tunis and Lt.-Col. Sir Rex L. Benson, who is also Honorary Treasurer; Sir Evelyn Wrench, the founder; Air Chief Marshal Sir Francis Fogarty, who is Director-General for the Commonwealth; and Miss Helena Mills John, O.B.E., who as Secretary-General handled most efficiently the organization of the conference. The President of the English-Speaking Union of the Commonwealth, His Royal Highness Prince Philip, flew over specially from England to attend the meetings.

The gatherings took place in the Chateau Laurier where an attractive exhibition of "Books as Ambassadors" was arranged in the reception room. Books from the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India and the United States made a fine display. There was also a photographic display showing various aspects of modern Britain. Many business sessions were held to discuss scholarships, exchanges, travel grants, recruiting for membership, younger members' groups, hospitality, personal contacts, and the sending abroad of qualified speakers. These sessions were lightened by social entertainments at the home of the High Commissioner for the United Kingdom and Lady Garner, at the American Embassy, the Country Club, and Government House.

On 29 October, the President, Prince Philip, took the Chair at a symposium held in the ballroom of the Chateau Laurier. A telegram from the Deputy President, Sir Winston Churchill, was read, stating:

> I wish the Conference of the English-Speaking Union now meeting in Ottawa all success in its task of strengthening further the bonds that unite the English-speaking people. Now more than ever it is of paramount importance that we should maintain our unity of ideals and actions to which civilization has owed so much and from which there is yet more to hope.

The Prince then introduced the four speakers of widely different interests. Air Marshal Sir John Slessor speaking from the military and defensive point of view, was followed by Dr. Whitney Griswold, President of Yale University, who set forth the educational stand in the affairs of the English Union; a skilful parallel on the economic side was presented by Dr. Davidson Dunton, President of Carleton University, while the Asiatic viewpoint was most lucidly shown by His Excellency Mr. Cadambi Sefhacar Venkatachar, High Commissioner for India. On the conclusion of these four excellent speeches, the Prince threw the discussion open to the meeting and

uided the debate with a skilful touch hat enlivened the proceedings. In mming up he urged the search for name better suited to these fast oving times, since English is now metimes the language of the min- rity in new members of the Com- onwealth.

The next day Prince Philip pre- ded over a banquet that was again eld in the ballroom of the Chateau aurier, at which the chief speaker as the guest of honour, His Excel- ency The Rt. Hon. Vincent Massey, overnor General of Canada, who oke of the increasing strength of eoples united in language and the ursuit of universal freedom.* He as followed by the Hon. Lewis W. ouglas, formerly ambassador from e United States to the United ingdom, and the formalities were oncluded by Lord Baillieu.

After the dinner the Prince shook ands with every guest he had not et previously.

On Friday, 31 October a final lenary session was held when the rince again took the Chair and uided the discussion of results with a ure hand.

In general it may be said that the onference will enable the English- peaking Union to continue its work accordance with the ever-changing emands of the Atomic era.

SYLVIA SEELEY.

For full text of this speech see page 16

* * *

ERRATA

Vol. LVII, No. 4, p. 133, caption at bottom. *Delete* The bridge . . . Namur *and substitute* The citadel of Namur and the Bridge of Jambes

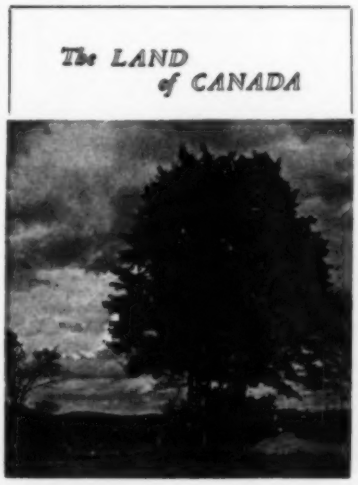
Vol. LVII, No. 4, p. 148. *Delete* South . . . ndians. *and substitute* Near Hagwilget Indian illage, situated above the junction of the Bulkley and Skeena Rivers about three miles om the town of Hazelton, this view of the Rocher Déboulé Range may be glimpsed. The ndians at Hagwilget are Carrier Indians who peak an Athapaskan language.

Vol. LVII, No. 5, p. 167, caption for photo- raph. *For* east coast of northern Greenland. *ead* west coast of northern Greenland; it shows view of Mt. Dundas in the foreground, with Wolstenholme Fjord to the left and the village f Thule to the right.

THE ROYAL CANADIAN GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY

THIRTIETH ANNUAL MEETING

To conform with By-Laws of the Society, the Annual General Meeting of the Society is called for Thursday, 19 February 1959, at 12.00 noon, in the Board Room of the Department of Public Works, 853 Hunter Building, Ottawa. The Board of Directors hereby serve notice that immediately after the meeting is convened a motion will be made that the meeting be adjourned to the evening of 12 March 1959, at 8.30 p.m. in the Lecture Hall of the National Museum of Canada, Ottawa, in order that members may have the privilege of hearing an address by Mr. James S. Duncan, C.M.G., Chairman of the Hydro Electric Power Commission of Ontario. A further notice will be published in the February issue.



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AMONGST THE NEW BOOKS

Jungle Down The Street

by Jack and Avril Grant White

(J. M. Dent and Sons, Don Mills. $4.25)

If you do not mind heat, violent storms, insects and the odd bout of illness, you will find both profit and pleasure in following the route taken by the authors of this delightful book from the coast of Brazil to that of Peru along the little-explored valley of the Amazon and through miles upon miles of jungle. If you feel that the journey would offer too many difficulties and discomforts, read how the Grant Whites overcame them, barely mentioning matters that would discourage even an intrepid traveller, especially one who is allergic to insects. Picture enormous flying centipedes, ticks that bury themselves under the skin setting up a frightful, month-long irritation, flying snakes whose bite is said to be fatal. Happily, this creature is very rare, but the Grant Whites encountered one. To counteract these unpleasantnesses, there were gorgeous golden butterflies — clouds of them — and the richly blue variety from whose wings many objects are made: ash trays, jewelry, even pictures copied from famous paintings. Flowers, ferns and trees are vividly described. Animals are brought into the story, notably the buffalo whose milk the travellers drank. And historical facts are presented so neatly, so easily, that the reader hardly realizes he had forgotten them. For example, "A full moon was rising, making a silver trail across the water and creating such an atmosphere of mystery and romance, that we might have expected to see . . . a band of the Amazon warrior women roaming the moonlit banks. For it was near this very spot that the Spanish explorer, Orellana, the first man to sail the length of the Amazon, claimed to have seen them."

It was surprising to learn that Manaus, practically in the heart of Brazil and surrounded by miles of jungle, achieved for a time a degree of civilization superior to that of many European cities. It had a steam locomotive railway serving the city. It had marble palaces, fine monuments, hotels and a splendid Opera House. It was the first city to install arc lighting in the streets. Rubber was responsible, and when the boom collapsed in 1910 most of the grandeur collapsed with it. But the Grant Whites were very comfortable in a bungalow on the edge of the jungle. They had set out to film the jungle, wild Indians and particularly the cannibal fish, the *piranha*. This smallish creature can strip the flesh off an animal or a human in a matter of minutes.

In Manaus, street cleaning is done by women, who outnumber men by about seven to one. Indian blood predominates in the mixture of races and "ethnologists estimate that the composition of the average Brazilian in the Amazon region consists of at least seventy-five per cent of aboriginal Indian."

The authors got permission to film the cemetery and were shown the grave of a Doctor Thomas, a native of Montreal and a legendary name in Manaus. He wanted to curb the prevalence of yellow fever, but contracted it himself. He recovered and imported two chimpanzees for experimentation. One died but the other throve and was presented to the Belém zoo. Dr. Thomas did a magnificent work among the people although he was not allowed to practise generally as a doctor.

In addition to schools for children — including under-privileged ones — Manaus has an A B C School for Adults, men who work in the jungle and have never learned to read or write. And it is heartening to learn that despite the fierce heat of the sun, sunstroke is almost unknown. Furthermore, the main stream of the Amazon, the world's greatest river, is practically clear of the malarial mosquito.

The strange cult of Macumba is described at some length. Its effect on the arts has been considerable both in the fields of music and dancing. "For example, the popular, present-day, ballroom samba is really the outcome of the basic step and rhythm of the Macumba." The Grant Whites were privileged to witness functions (usually held in secret) and they became very friendly with the High Priestess.

Fiestas are colourfully described; also native dress, customs, food and drink. Stress is laid upon the hospitality of the people, who so often made difficult situations easy. Their lack of punctuality was somewhat trying but even that did not prevent the desired filming. One drawback that would discourage the average person was the need to get up between four and five o'clock in the morning in order to start on any jaunt. Apparently, the Grant Whites did not mind pre-dawn risings.

The travellers found themselves marooned on the large island of Marajó — about the size of Switzerland — that virtually fills the Amazon

estuary. They had been told that it was "unusual" and so, indeed, it proved to be. Their host, cordial enough in inviting them to his estate in the centre of the island, a very inaccessible spot, excused himself over a cup of coffee and flew back to Belém without advising them of his departure, return or of any means for leaving the *fazenda*. However, they were entertained by the cowboys, who organized a buffalo stampede and showed some dazzlingly expert horsemanship, gave them vast quantities of meat for their meals, sang and danced and were altogether friendly. By a sort of accident, they managed to get away and at last found plenty of cannibal fish.

The rubber boom did much to create prosperity for Brazil. Oil could start another boom and it has been suggested that a gigantic oil field lies beneath the Amazon River. Just outside of Manaus, there is a new oil refinery, developed by Petrobras, the official Brazilian oil organization. Its technicians are mostly foreign — American. One imagines that the company is looking forward to a strike in the not-too-distant future, for anything can happen in Brazil, the mysterious, the unknown and the little-explored jungle.

MADGE MACBETH

Mrs. Madge Macbeth has published more than seventeen books, and written hundreds of feature articles on her varied travels.

* * *

Geographical Essays on British Tropical Lands

Edited by R. W. Steel and C. A. Fisher
(Ambassador Books,
Toronto. $10.00)

This book is a collection of nine separate essays, most of which deal with special problems within their own particular framework of tropical conditions, but which taken collectively might do much to awaken interest in and increase knowledge of the geography of the tropics.

In a brief opening essay Professor Steel points out that "So far as the British are concerned, the tropics have a special interest today since within them are to be found almost all of the territories that can still be called, albeit with some hesitation, 'colonial'." According to the table appended to this chapter, these comprise a total area of more than 1.8 million square miles containing a population of about 75,000,000. Conditions, especially population pressures, vary greatly. Singapore and Hong Kong both have more than

(*Continued on page XI*)

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(Continued from page IX)

5,000 people per square mile, and Barbados has about 1,400. At the other extreme the British Solomon Islands have less than nine people per square mile and Aden Protectorate about five. Included within the field of the essay also are the former British territories of Ceylon, Gold Coast and Sudan, making another million square miles and 22,000,000 people. One need make no apology for directing attention to the geography of such a large group of mankind.

The second essay "Some Problems of Population in British West Africa" is also by R. W. Steel. It deals with an area of almost half a million square miles and 38,000,000 people. However, some areas are stated to have rural populations of more than 1,000 per square mile. Here, too, are numerous towns of more than 40,000 people, including Ibadan with nearly three-quarters of a million and at least seven others of more than 100,000. In contrast to these overcrowded areas, "on the other hand, there are vast expanses that are uninhabited and apparently unused". It would seem that the time is ripe for enquiry into the possibilities for resettlement.

R. J. Harrison Church examines The Transport Pattern of British West Africa". Nigeria was, during the early part of this century, provided with several lines of railways which together with river navigation gave reasonable service to the mining districts of the interior. Now, however, in the south, highway transport is providing stiff competition for the railways, while there has also been a remarkable development of air services. Similar though less extensive transportation systems are described for the Gold Coast and Sierra Leone.

"Soil Erosion in Nigeria" by A. T. Grove discusses a problem which has received considerable attention in the past twenty years. "It is not sufficient to construct terraces and plug gullies for this is attempting to clear up a rash without ascertaining and dealing with the disease which is causing it." Grove spends two-thirds of his essay on a rapid survey of the physical geography of Nigeria and the remainder is devoted to three regional studies, perhaps to emphasize the lack of information for other areas. Increasing population (32,000,000 people in an area the size of British Columbia) is increasing the pressure upon both old and new farm lands. It is necessary therefore that land be set aside for cultivation, grazing and forestry in such a way as to conform with natural conditions and thereby restrict the possibilities of erosion ever occurring.

A human problem of long standing is described by D. B. Mather in "Migration in the Sudan". In this "Broadway of Africa" migrants have moved for centuries. Essentially it is an eastward movement with pilgrims for Mecca making up a notably large proportion. Many never go home, however, and more than 250,000 Westerners now reside in Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.

(Continued on page XII)

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(Continued from page XI)

U. C. R. Ford writes of "The Trade of Lake Victoria and its Marginal Lands". Lake Victoria, 26,000 square miles in area and the second largest fresh-water surface in the world, lies athwart the equator on the African plateau. It is bordered by Kenya, Uganda, and Tanganyika, but it has not become a notable highway of inter-territorial trade. Instead it forms a link in a system of transportation for regional exports. Around its shores lies one of the densest concentrations of population in East Africa, producing important export commodities such as cotton fibre, cotton seed, coffee and timber. The larger part of this traffic moves toward the port of Kisumu, the terminal of the Uganda Railway to Mombasa. The small part of the lake traffic flows to Mwanza and the Tanganyika Railway to Dar-es-Salaam.

In "Land Use and Settlement in Jamaica", E. Paget offers a very useful study of this interesting tropical island in the New World. With a total area of over 4,400 square miles (2,800,000 acres) Jamaica had, according to the census of 1943, some 1,800,000 productive acres including 383,000 acres in cultivation, almost as much again classified as cultivable but not in use, nearly 600,000 acres in pasture, and just over 500,000 acres of woodand. It is a matter of some curiosity that the author fails to give a figure for either total population or farm population although urban population is given as 285,000 or slightly under twenty-five per cent. Jamaica apparently supports three persons per cultivated acre, although its crude population density is about 260 people per square mile. The average annual increase is approximately 23,000—"the reality of population pressure seems hardly to be in doubt". To offset this, recent land settlement schemes have provided 150,000 acres, although admittedly not of the best land. Paget provides very useful maps of land forms, and population distribution according to census divisions. The section on historical development is informative and accompanied by maps of the distribution of sugar estates in 1763, 1790 and 1890. During the nineteenth century, internal stability was sacrificed upon the altar of sugar. The twentieth century is therefore faced with an almost insoluble problem.

B. H. Farmer has contributed an essay on "Rainfall and Water-Supply in the Dry Zone of Ceylon". The dry zone comprises the northern and eastern parts of the island. Here the usual monsoonal effects are reversed, the southwest monsoons are dry winds while the northeast monsoons bring rain during a short season from November to January. In comparison with the wet zone this is an area of sparse settlement and Ceylon hopes to develop techniques whereby these empty lands may be used to support the rapidly expanding population. To be of much use, however, these lands must be supplied with irrigation water.

In "The Problem of Malayan Unity in its Geographical Setting", C. A. Fisher contributed the longest essay, comprising almost one-quarter of the book. Fisher treats his subject in two parts, first, as a study in historical geography and second, from the point of view of recent and contemporary political geography. Pointing out that, although the peninsula has a unity derived from its basic structural, climatic and biological homogeneity, there has, paradoxically, been great difficulty in achieving political unity. Lying athwart the sea lanes of the Far East, Malaya has received many Chinese and Indian immigrants. These elements in the population now outnumber the Malays, especially in Singapore, the population of which is three-quarters Chinese. This is, perhaps, the strongest reason why Singapore has not been taken into the Malayan federation. Another very important reason is the reluctance of SEATO military planners and strategists to have Singapore pass out of Western control. Notwithstanding these and other forces tending to keep them apart, Fisher believes that: "If past experience and the facts of contemporary political geography are any guide, the situation calls not for continued separation but for close association without delay".

One hesitates to pass judgment on such a book. Individually most of its essays are excellent. The three which relate to British West Africa give one a fairly comprehensive understanding of the region and some of its chief problems, but one is, perhaps, better informed by reading Harrison Church's regional study of West Africa. Paget's essay on Jamaica successfully brings out its problems and their backgrounds, laying a very proper stress on historical factors. Historical and political considerations also form the basis of Fisher's study of Malaya. The emphasis on historical geography, then, is the greatest impression which one gains from the book and is undoubtedly also its major contribution to geographical thought.

D. F. PUTNAM

Dr. D. F. Putnam is professor and head of the Department of Geography in the University of Toronto.